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CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT IN TANZANIA
AN INVESTIGATION OF THE FORMULATION, MANAGEMENT
AND IMPLEMENTATION OF THE 2005 CURRICULUM
REFORM IN SELECTED DISADVANTAGED DISTRICTS

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Submitted in Fulfilment of the Requirement for the Degree
of Doctor of Philosophy
School of Education
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19th November 2014

AUTHOR'S DECLARATION

I declare that this thesis does not include work forming part of a thesis presented successfully for another degree. I declare that the thesis represents my own work except where referenced to others.

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ABSTRACT

In the 21st Century, the need for Tanzania to navigate through the impact of globalisation with a more responsive school curriculum was evident, and TC2005 was an effort towards this end. My study was on the formulation, management and implementation of TC2005 with special emphasis on disadvantaged localities. I sought to answer three central questions: (1) What role did curriculum stakeholders play in the TC2005 process and with what effect? (2) How relevant and practicable was TC2005 to students, parents and communities? 3) How was management carried out and with what effect to actual classroom teaching?

Critical Policy Sociology (CPS) was the conceptual framework guiding the research with data availed through questionnaires, interviews, focus group discussions and documentary review. Purposive sampling provided the 201 participants of the study from state and non-state institutions, local and central government, school heads, teachers, parents and students. Data corpus was mainly transcriptions and summaries. An eclectic model adopted from Vidovich (2001), Gale (2002), Ball 1994, 1993) and Bowe *et al* (1992) guided data analysis with contexts that influenced production and enactment of TC2005 identified and interpreted.

The findings suggested the existence of unequal power relations between the state and stakeholders with the former not only controlling and dictating terms from the centre, but also excluding even practitioners. Bi-partisan politics were also portrayed with parties struggling for inclusion of their values as the centre fought to retain status quo. The good intentions of TC2005 was noted, but weighed down by a multitude of limitations e.g. lack of resources, influence of the polity, donor pressure and global agenda. Finally, management of TC2005 process was authoritarian **rather than** participatory and thus the best use of other people's skills to arrive at more effective decisions was not made. Hence TC2005 featured rigid syllabuses that were to be translated using State-vetted textbooks.

Teachers' sense of autonomy was eroded to render them unable to broker and craft their own policies as professionals.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

TITLE	i
AUTHOR'S DECLARATION	ii
ABSTRACT	iii
TABLE OF CONTENTS	v
LIST OF APPENDICES	ix
LIST OF TABLES	x
LIST OF FIGURES	xi
ACKNOWLEDGEMENT	xii
ABBREVIATIONS	xv
1.0 INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY	1
1.1 Background to the Study	1
1.2 National Context	1
1.3 The Research Problem	5
1.4 Curriculum and Curriculum Reform	10
1.5 Purpose of the Research	13
1.6 Key Research Questions	13
1.7 Focus of the Research	13
1.7.1 Roles of different actors	14
1.7.2 Relevance of the curriculum	14
1.7.3 Managing of the Curriculum reform process	15
1.8 Significance	16
1.9 Limitations	17
1.10 Chapter Summary	18
2.0 EDUCATION IN TANZANIA: A HISTORICAL CONTEXT	19
2.1 Introduction	19
2.2 Indigenous Education	19
2.3 Arabs and the Introduction of Islamic Education	21
2.3.1 Islamic Religion and Culture	21
2.3.2 Islamic Schools	22
2.3.3 The Al-Busaid Family from Oman	23
2.3.4 Islamic Cultural Impact	23

2.4	Introduction of Western Formal Education	25
2.4.1	Christian Missionary Education	25
2.4.2	German Colonial Education System	28
2.4.3	The British Colonial Education System	29
2.5	Education in the Post-Independence Era	39
2.5.1	The Philosophy of Education for Self Reliance	40
2.5.2	The Current State of Education in Tanzania	41
2.6	Chapter Summary	42
3.0	CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT AND REFORM	42
3.1	Introduction	43
3.2	Curriculum: An Overview	43
3.3	Curriculum Theories and Models	46
3.3.1	Model I: Curriculum as a Body of Knowledge	49
3.3.2	Model II: Curriculum as a Product	49
3.3.3	Model III: Curriculum as a Process	50
3.3.4	Model IV: Curriculum as Praxis	53
3.3.5	Traditional point of view of curriculum	55
3.4	Education and Society	56
3.4.1	Schooling, Curriculum and Society	57
3.4.2	Curriculum Development	58
3.4.3	Curriculum Reform	62
3.5	Curriculum-related Studies from Sub-Saharan Africa	63
3.5.1	Studies from Sub-Saharan Africa Outside Tanzania	64
3.5.2	Studies from Tanzania	69
3.6	Chapter Summary	75
4.0	PUBLIC POLICY MAKING AND POLICY SOCIOLOGY	77
4.1	Introduction	77
4.2	Public Policy: An Overview	77
4.2.1	Definition	77
4.2.2	Policy Making Models and Assumptions	79
4.3	Policy Sociology	87
4.3.1	Policy sociology as a tool of policy analysis	88
4.3.2	Society, politics and education	89

4.4	The Politics of curriculum Development and Reform	92
4.5	Chapter Summary	94
5.0	DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY OF THE STUDY	95
5.1	Introduction	95
5.2	Conceptual framework	95
5.3	Design and methodology of the Study	96
5.3.1	Sample and sampling	97
5.3.2	Instrumentation	101
5.4	Access to study sites and participants	106
5.5	Data analysis strategy	107
5.6	Trustworthiness	110
5.7	Reflexivity and researcher's role	113
5.8	Ethical considerations	114
5.9	Chapter Summary	116
6.0	PRODUCTION OF THE TANZANIA CURRICULUM POLICY TEXT	117
6.1	Introduction	117
6.2	TC2005: A State and Donor Agenda	118
6.2.1	State Influence on TC2005	118
6.2.2	State Control through Textbook Vetting	123
6.2.3	Donor Influence	124
6.2.4	Influence from Global Agenda	128
6.3	Conceptual Misinterpretation of Curriculum	132
6.4	Disempowering of Practitioners and Other Stakeholders	134
6.5	Discussion	137
6.6	Chapter Summary	125
7.0	ENACTMENT OF TANZANIA CURRICULUM POLICY - 2005	143
7.1	Introduction	143
7.2	Teachers' Professionalism and Professional Identity	143
7.2.1	What and How to Teach	144
7.2.2	Deployment of Resources	149
7.2.3	Deployment of and Training of Teaching Staff	155
7.3	Limited Autonomy	161

7.3.1	Lack of Effective Capacity Building	161
7.3.2	Lack of Teachers' Voice	164
7.3.3	Policies of Social Exclusion	166
7.3.4	Teacher's Conceptualisation of Curriculum and Change	167
7.4	Discussion	168
7.5	Chapter Summary	175
8.0	CONCLUSIONS IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS	176
8.1	Introduction	176
8.2	The Power of the Centre, and the Powerlessness of the Periphery	177
8.3	Divergence Between the Theoretical Base of the New Policy Against Output and Practice	179
8.4	The New Curriculum: Authoritarian Management	181
8.5	Strengths and Challenges of the Study	184
8.6	Future Research	186
	APPENDICES	187
	REFERENCES	229

List of Appendices

- I Plain Language Statement Guidelines
- II Ethical Application
- III Informed Consent Form
- IV Interview Questions for School and College Heads
- V Interview Questions for Ministry of Education Officials
- VI Interview Questions for Non-State Local Institutions
- VII Interview Questions for International Institutions
- VIII Focus Group Discussion for Parents
- IX Focus Group Questions for Students
- X Questionnaire for Classroom Teachers, Teacher Trainers,
Education Administrators and School Inspectors
- XI Research Clearance Letter
- XII Teacher Training Advertisement
- XIII District Poverty Profiling for Study Districts
- XIV A sample of EMAC Minutes, 2009
- XV Syllabus format adopted for all TC2005 subjects
- XVI List of documents analysed
- XVII Researcher's Fieldwork Diary Extracts
- XVIII Tanzania Macro policies within which the education sector
operates.

List of Tables

1.1	Selected Statistical Information on Education in Tanzania
3.1	The Curriculum Phenomenon
4.1	Summary of Policy Making Models
5.1	Regions, districts and schools selected for the study
5.2	Categorization and description of study participants
6.1	A general format of TC2005 syllabuses
7.1	Time allocation for school heads for effective management
7.2	Sample extracts of TC2005 Secondary Mathematics Syllabus
	Summary of Government circulars in relation to TC2005
7.4	Government formula for the use of Capitation Grant funds
7.5	Increase in number of students and teachers - 2005/09
7.6	Summary of classroom teachers' responses on TC2005 orientation
7.7	Classroom teachers' responses on communication during TC2005 implementation

List of Figures

- 1.1 Map of Tanzania
- 2.1 Madrassah schooling
- 2.2 Impact of Islam in education in Tanzania
- 2.3 Magila UMCA Mission Station
- 2.4 German colonial school structures
- 3.1 The process of curriculum development
- 3.2 Intended, enacted, assessed, and attained curriculum
- 4.1 Public policy making stages
- 5.1 Conceptual framework
- 5.2 Data analysis strategy

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Peter Salum Kopweh

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Abbreviations

CBOs	Community-Based Organisations
CPD	Continuous Professional Development
CPS	Critical Policy Sociology
CEOs	Chief Executive Officers
EFA	Education For All
EMAC	Educational Materials Evaluation Committee
ESDP	Education Sector Development Programme
ESR	Education for Self Reliance
GIA	Grant-In-Aid
IBE	International Bureau of Education
ICT	Information Communication Technology
MoEVT	Ministry of Education and Vocational Training
MoEC	Ministry of Education and Culture
NA	Native Authority
NGOs	Non-Government Organisations
PEDP	Primary Education Development Plan
SAP	Structural Adjustment Programme
SEDP	Secondary Education Development Plan
TACAE	Tanganyika Advisory Committee for African Education
TC2005	Tanzania Curriculum 2005
TMC	Tanganyika Missionary Council
URT	United Republic of Tanzania
USD	United States Dollars
UNESCO	United Nations Educational Scientific Cultural Organisation
WW1/2	World War One or Two

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

1.1 Background to the Study

Tanzania embarked on sector-wide approaches to the provision of education since the mid 1990s in order to ensure a growing and equitable access to better quality formal education and adult literacy. Areas attended to were the expansion of facilities, efficiency gains, quality improvement and adequate supply and efficient use of resources; (MOEC 2004). Following the development of a national policy in education (MOEC 1995), a number of programmes were developed as implementation strategies namely the Education Sector Development Programme (ESDP 1997), the Primary Education Development Plan (PEDP 2002), the Secondary Education Development Plan (SEDP 2004); and the Adult and Non-formal Education Implementation Plan, 2003. The main objectives of these initiatives were to improve the quality of education and strengthen the linkage between education and the country's economic and social-cultural development; (URT 2008). These initiatives were being implemented within the context of liberal economic policies that had changed the Government's role from a key player in providing education to that of a facilitator; i.e. setting policies, providing standards, specifications and guidelines to verify compliancy with development goals. In 2004/05, a comprehensive curriculum review was carried out the result of which was a new competency-based curriculum (TC2005). This new curriculum forms the main agenda of this study in an attempt to establish how it was conceived, managed, implemented and with what impact.

1.2 National Context

The United Republic of Tanzania (URT) was born from a merger between the mainland - Tanganyika and the island of Zanzibar on 26th April 1964. The two attained their political independencies from Britain on 9th December 1961 and 10th December 1963 respectively. Geographically, the

URT covers 945,203 square kilometres, and has a population of 44,928,923 (2012 National Census data).

Tanzania is endowed with some of the famous natural geographical features including the highest point in Africa (Kibo Peak on Mt Kilimanjaro) and the lowest point at the floor of Lake Tanganyika (deepest in Africa) as well as Lake Victoria (largest in Africa) shared with Kenya and Uganda. The Eastern Rift Valley also passes through the country and in it there can be found Oldonyo, Lengai and Mt. Meru (active volcanic mountains), shallow salt lakes (Eyasi and Natron), and Lake Nyasa (third largest and deepest) and famous for its 500-1000 varieties of fish species.

Figure 1.1: Tanzania, geographical location and borders



Source: Google maps

The official capital city is Dodoma, but Dar es Salaam (the previous capital city) has remained a very important business and political hub as many of the government ministries, institutions and foreign embassies are located there.

Tanzania's economy is heavily dependent on agriculture with the bulk of the producers in the sector being peasants in rural areas, and accounting for more than 25 percent of the GDP. The country also boasts of vast amounts of minerals including gold, diamonds, coal, iron, uranium and

nickel as well as Tanzanite - a gemstone found nowhere else except in Tanzania. Recently, commercial production of natural gas has begun along the southern Indian Ocean and prospecting of oil is going on. The estimated GDP per capita income is calculated at USD599.

According to the National Education and Training Policy (MoEC 1995), the country follows a 7-4-2-3 system with children enrolling at age 7 and continue to attend primary school free of direct cost in public schools until age 14. Thereafter, they transit to secondary schools after passing a competitive entrance examination. Lower secondary takes 4 years after which students sit for an examination to join a 2-year higher secondary. A direct fee equivalent to USD10 is charged in public schools, but an uncontrolled fee system applies in private primary and secondary schools. These often range from USD300 and even higher in boarding ones. Since 2000, the country has been expanding its education system and by 2012, the statistical data was as shown in Table 1.1:

Table 1.1: Selected Statistical information on current status of education in Tanzania

Sub-sector	2010	2012
Kindergarten	Not available	Not available
Primary	Schools: 15,816 Teachers: 165,856 T/Pupil Ratio: 1:51 P1 students: 1,356,5742,	16,331 180,987 1:46 1,404,998
Secondary.	Schools: - Teachers: 40,517 T/Pupil Ratio: S1 students: M. 1,866,734 :F. 699,951 S5 & 6: Male: 43,437 Female: 28577	- 65,086 - Male: 954961 Female: 847849 Male: 55,512 Female: 25,950
Tertiary	Universities: 34 Students: Male: 51,860 Female: 87,778	46 Male: 105,892 Female: 60,592
Teachers Colleges	34 Male: 20,051 Female: 16,597	34 Male: 24,360 Female: 18,898
Technical and Vocational	Institutions: 224 Students: Male: 52,027 Female: 50,190	260 Male: 64,499 Female: 56849

Source: United Republic of Tanzania (2012) Ministerial Budget Speech, 2012/13

Subjects in primary schools include English, Ki-Swahili, Mathematics, Science, Geography, History, Civics, Sports and Personality, Vocational Studies, Information and Technology and General Science. The curriculum is spiral in nature and hence the same subject titles appear in secondary schools with higher level of complexity. However secondary school science is broken into Physics, Chemistry and Biology. In higher secondary, the subjects are categorised in liberal arts and natural science and are regarded as electives in that students select subjects that would channel them into different university courses and professions later in life such as medicine, engineering, computer science and humanity-oriented areas. Students' choices for the electives are normally based on performance in the examinations rather than on own interest.

Degree programmes in the country's universities take 3-4 years except medicine which requires students to complete in 5 years. Graduates in Medicine, Law and Engineering have to undergo a one-year-probation period before formal registration. Some of the high school leavers who do not qualify to join the university would go into various vocational courses administered by a government institution (The Vocational Education Training Authority) or private institutions. However, the majority do not and instead will join the thousands of jobless population. By 2012, Tanzania had 11 public and 17 private universities and colleges.

Kiswahili is the official language and medium of instruction in primary schools whereas English holds the official status in the certain Government departments such as the judiciary. It is also the medium of instruction from secondary schools to the university. The sudden switch to English as a medium of instruction for students transiting from primary to secondary schools has been a serious limitation for many in following their studies. Changes have been slow to come by as the use of English versus Kiswahili has often been politicized. English is often termed a colonial language given the country's 40 years of British colonial history. The contrast however is that the affluent population, including Government officials

and politicians often enrol their children in private English medium private schools (primary and secondary) that are springing up every now and then, whereas the poor majority cannot do so due to the higher fees charged.

The country's education system is heavily based on testing with the National Examination Council (NECTA) conducting summative examinations at the end of Primary 4 (P4), Primary 7 (P7), Secondary 2 (S2), Secondary 4 (S4), and Secondary 6 (S6). The P7, S4 and S6 examinations are considered the most critical ones by students and parents as they enable one to transit to higher level and a promising future if they pass; and to an uncertain future for those who fail. Teacher trainees are also examined by NECTA. This examination status has often led to 'teaching-for-examination' practices in schools and the use of dishonest means by both teachers and students. It has also led to the use of private paid extra tuition classes as schools compete for higher status based on the number of students passing with higher grades.

Of recent, the education system has come under heavy criticisms from the general public and especially after poor results in the nation S4 and S6 examinations between 2009 and 2011. The complaints went as far as becoming a political agenda with some members of parliament calling for resignation of the minister of education. Generally, the complaints have associated these poor results with TC2005, and I have made use of some of these views within the thesis.

1.3 The Research Problem

The quest for a school curriculum that best addresses Tanzania's development agenda has been at the core of the country's policy making efforts. Indeed it can even be argued that the state had realised the centrality of such curriculum soon after independence by establishing a semi-autonomous institution specifically for the designing and developing school curricula. As pointed out by Mosha (2012), Tanzania's curricula reforms have passed through phases reflecting the dominant philosophy and education policies at that period. Between the year of independence

(1961) and 2010, the country had reviewed its curricula five-fold as disclosed by the management of the Tanzania Institute of Education - the national institution for curriculum development (Mwananchi Newspaper, 07 August 2012). This is an average of once after each five years, and no wonder there have been a general concern from the public that there has been too many reforms.

The curriculum reforms of the 1960s and early 1970s were purposely conducted to address elitist tendencies that dominated the post-independence and colonial-adopted curriculum, to provide education for more of the rural majority, to make schools more self-reliant, to encourage attitudes favourable to agricultural work, to contribute to a reduction in urban drift, and to help integrate the schools with the community (Mulenga 2001; Kassam 2000; Saunders and Vulliamy 1983; Nyerere 1978). The changes on school curricula that were introduced after the mid-1980s were a reaction to the adoption of liberal policies at the macro-level, after which the various social and economic sectors had to abide with. Education began to be looked as a commodity to be bought and students became the clientele. Syllabuses that for so many years were provided to schools at no cost by the Government began to be sold in bookshops as well as by the responsible institute. Textbooks, another freely-provided item became a huge commodity in the market with global publishing conglomerates competing for it.

The latest curriculum intervention whose output is the 2005 Tanzania Curriculum (TC2005) was introduced for the purpose of addressing problems of the 21st Century. In his Parliamentary Budget Speech (2005/06), the then Minister for Education pointed out that within the new curriculum, secondary school subjects have been reduced from 13 to 8 by integrating the former elective subjects and core subjects. He described the purpose of TC2005 as follows:

This curriculum will provide a better quality education to secondary school students as a basis for higher education, vocations and self employment. This was done in reaction to the Tanzania Education System for the 21st Century report that was prepared by

a Government Task Force (1990) and which culminated in the production of the National Education and Training Policy (ETP 1995) as well as the Education Sector Development Programme - SEDP (URT/MoEVT, 2005).

As sound as this purpose appears to be, there are still questions as to whether the conceptualization of the TC2005 and the implementation process were in line with this purpose.

In a report to appraise the Tanzania Secondary Education Sub-sector in preparation for the provision of a USD30 million loan for the Secondary Education Plan, (SEDP), the African Development Bank (ADB) reiterated the need for Tanzania to have a responsive secondary school curriculum to enable the population acquire useful life skills as well as an efficient and effective delivery of the curriculum. The report proposed how these aims would be achieved:

This would mean an adequate and qualified number of teachers, as well as sufficient and appropriate teaching and learning materials, should be available in all schools to raise student achievement, and appropriate mechanisms for testing learning competencies must be in place (ADB/URT 2007:21)

The curriculum that forms the basis of this study was formulated, managed and implemented within the First Phase of SEDP (SEDP 1) 2004 - 2009 as one of the strategies of implementation. Table 1.2 summarises SEDP 1 goals for each of its five programme areas:

Table 1.2 SEDP Goals for the respective programme areas

Programme areas	Goals
i) Improvement of Access	To reach 50 per cent cohort participation and transition rate from primary to secondary education by 2010
ii) Equity Improvement	To ensure equity of participation in underserved areas by geographical locations, gender, and income inequalities.
iii) Quality Improvement	To raise the pass rate, of Division I - III, from the current 36 percent to 70 percent
iv) Management Reforms and Devolution of	To increase efficiency and responsiveness in the operation of secondary education.

Authority	
v) Education Management System Improvement	To make sure that the Ministry becomes more efficient in executing its core functions of policy formulation, monitoring and evaluation, providing regulatory framework, coordination, and optimization of resource use.

Source: United Republic of Tanzania/Min. of Education and Culture, 2004.

Official documents indicated that the quality improvement programme area was to be achieved through four strategies viz. (i) focusing and streamlining the then existing curriculum by creating core subjects and structuring the syllabuses to address cross cutting issues such as HIV/AIDS, the environment and gender and health habits in appropriate subjects; (ii) training adequate number of teachers and teacher trainers through a combination of expanded pre-service, continuous teacher development (CPD) and open and distance teacher education programs; (iii) providing adequate financing for the provision of teaching and learning materials, through the introduction of capitation grant (CG) to schools, with the aim of achieving a student-book ratio of 1:1; and (iv) improving the setting and relevance of examinations (URT/MoEC 2004a; URT/MoEC 2004b; URT/MoEVT 2008).

A World Bank report quotes review team members who paid site visits to primary schools in the country and noticed that the textbooks availed as implementation strategy for TC2005 were quite comparable to international standards although they were in short supply especially in rural localities (World Bank 2010). On the actual delivery of the curriculum however, they identified serious discrepancies:

It is likely that the actual curriculum delivered by most schools is not yet the new one, given that in most school systems it would take time to train teachers and assure all schools have the new materials. Moreover, the new curriculum would require teachers with an even deeper understanding of their subject specialties and mastery of pedagogy, since they are required to entertain more questions from students and also pose critical questions and problems to engage their students (World Bank 2010:25).

The review team faulted the short-term teacher training schemes adopted by the Government as a way of meeting teacher requirements in schools. They argued that they were not properly evaluated except for tabulating numbers of trainees. These include a 4-week residential training for high school leavers and thereafter posting them to secondary schools, and shortening by one year the two year residential teacher training for certificate and diploma trainees respectively.

A review report of the sector conducted jointly by the Government and stakeholders in 2011 noted successes in quantitative aspects of the system. The report also revealed among others challenges are evidenced in declining pass rates especially for girls, low completion rates. The report pointed out that these challenges were compounded by a shortage of qualified teaching staff at all levels, inadequate teaching and learning materials, shortage of assistive devices specifically for learners with special needs, poor quality teaching in science, mathematics and languages, lack of attention for cross-cutting issues such as environmental education, gender, drug abuse, human rights and road safety; lack of ICT facilities and lack of support for teachers and students affected by HIV/AIDS.

A reporter from the UK Guardian Newspaper (David Smith), on a visit to a few schools in some districts near the commercial city of Dar es Salaam in 2010 witnessed classroom scenes depicting the consequences of a policy to abolish school fees and its impact on curriculum implementation. He points out that whereas the policy enhanced equitable access with many poor families benefiting, it allowed enrolment to expand to a point where schools were creaking with overcrowded classrooms, shortages of books, and corporal punishment as a way of maintaining order in the classrooms. The reporter quotes an official of the Ministry of Education on the situation who conceded that the government was like a father with many children, such that when he tried to give to each, the share becomes very little.

"Whereas the target was one textbook between three children, the ratio is still one between five, and in some subjects one between 25. Whereas the budget target was 10,000 shillings (£4.20) per pupil, it is stuck at only 4,735 shillings (£2) per pupil. We are below the target by half. We can't meet the targets because of scarce resources.

The official should also have gone further as to describe why the father does not come up with strategies to earn more so as to increase the size of the shares for the children.

An obvious critic of all these reports was that they were not specific to curriculum; rather they dealt with the whole education sector and consequently left unattended issues to do with curriculum. As for the Guardian reporters' observation, one can argue that it was not scientifically objectives. The newspaper stories are often exaggerated for the purpose of selling the newspapers.

1.4 Curriculum and Curriculum Reform

According to the earliest work on curriculum by John Franklin Bobbit, curriculum originated from the chariot tracks of ancient Greece and later the Latin term *currere* (to run) adopted to represent it (Kelly 2009, Pinnar 1995). Curriculum theorists of the 20th Century went further to include the entire scope of formative deeds and experiences taking place within school and without, the planned and unplanned experiences as well as those that were intentioned done and carried out (Kelly 2009; Marsh 2004; Pinnar 1995). In his work (the Long Revolution), Raymond Williams points out that the content of a curriculum helps to guide distribution of education in society as the cultural choices involved in the selection existed in organic relationship with the social choices (Williams 1966). Greek and Latin philosophical thinking later greatly impacted on Western school curricula systems. As noted by Jenkins (2004) and White (2004), curriculum is the foundation of any education system, and thus it often requires frequent revisiting for improvement of prescribed standards and to reduce inconsistencies. In many cases, such reviews are a requirement of the

policy makers and other educational leadership to improve curriculum and teaching quality. The following are scenarios that caused different countries to change review their curricula.

In Scotland, the late 1990s saw the beginning of realization that the education provided did not meet the needs of the young people for that time and for their future. This culminated in an ambitious reform i.e. Curriculum for Excellence, (CfE). School leavers had less life skills needed for life and work (Briton 2013). In a communiqué on CfE, 'What can learners expect?' the authorities (Education Scotland) describe CfE as one that has included a range of features at the different stages of learning to ensure that students are provided continuous opportunities to develop skills for learning, skills for life and skills for work. Schools in partnership with stakeholders are called upon to work together for a broader, well planned curriculum that would enable the children to understand the world and Scotland's place in the world. Basically CfE was planned to be a curriculum that goes into the future with children's rights and qualifications taken care of.

In England, the major reason for reviewing the National Curriculum was described as to ensure that the aspirations that were set for the children matched those in the highest performing education jurisdictions, and giving teachers greater freedom to teach (Department of Education, England, 2013). In July 2013, Sean Coughlan, a BBC education correspondent reported that five year old children would start learning fractions and computer algorithms, as a more stretching national curriculum is announced for state schools in England. He appended his report with a photograph of the Prime Minister (David Cameron) flanked by two five-year old youngsters and working on a laptop computer. The correspondent quoted a UK Government official stating that the curriculum changes were designed to catch up with the world's best education systems. The Prime Minister called the change a 'revolution in education' that was vital for the country's economic prosperity.

Roger-Francois Gauthier, in a study commissioned by UNESCO/IBE (2013) on curriculum in Mali, Tunisia, Cameroon, Gabon, and Senegal (former French African territories) traced the reasons that led to changes in the curricula of these countries. He found out that before independence, students from these territories performed poorly in international examinations and consequently were denied places into French higher educational institutions i.e. universities, elite schools (*grandes écoles*) and government secondary schools (*lycées*). After independence, changes were made as the colonial-adopted curricula did not seem to work in favour of the changing social economic realities of the region. Came the 1990 Jomtien Conference that drew the attention of decision makers in the world on the need to provide education on equitable access and of high quality. These countries became signatories to the conference resolutions and had to revisit their education systems including curricula.

After the war in the former Yugoslavia that led to a breakdown of the country in three constituencies of Bosnia, Serbia and Croatia in 1995, there were global worries that if these constituencies were allowed to develop individual curricula, they will portray religious and ethnic tensions and thus counter the healing process that had started to occur after the unfortunate traumatic catastrophe. Thus UNESCO intervened to advise on the need for a common school curriculum framework that would focus on effectively assessing commonly-defined learning outcomes instead of privileging the evaluation of memorised pre-fabricated knowledge that often promoted content with ethnic, religious and/or gender biases. This common framework was developed in 2005 within the European Union Education Project for these countries UNESCO/IBE (2010). The model was not adopted but it served as a source for curriculum reforms that came later.

East African countries (Kenya, Uganda and Tanzania (former British colonies) continued with British curriculum for a few years after independency and gave priority to expanding their education systems to enrol more children as the many were denied of the opportunity by the colonizers. Soon thereafter, the need to have curricula that reflected the

visions of their states was realized. Tanzania school curriculum for example has changed five-fold between 1961 and 202005 as the passed through changing socially, economically, culturally and politically.

The underlining point here is that reforming school curricula is a phenomenon of the developed and well as the developed world. Reforms are thus guided by the notion that contemporary school education falls short of public expectations and hence the need to innovate and prepare students for higher education and work life. This argument is supported by a plethora of literature suggesting that there is an ever-expanding gap in knowledge in today's world just as there exist a mismatch between what students acquire in school and what they face when they start working (See Washer 2007; Lambert 2009; Hirsch 2007; Frean & Yobbo 2007).

1.5 Purpose of the Research

Reforming the curriculum of a country is essentially replacing one curriculum policy with another in the hope that the new policy addresses the challenges that faced the old policy. The assumption in this study was that studying the curriculum reform process in Tanzania and focusing on how implementation was carried out in districts that are disadvantaged will predict receptivity of policies in other disadvantaged communities for the benefit of future policy-making in education. It was also conceived that locating the study in the disadvantaged districts of north eastern Tanzania may serve as pilot for future studies in other similar districts in a broader scale. Specifically the research purported to:

- a) Generate data and information on the experiences of curriculum development, reform and implementation in Tanzania;
- b) Contribute to the existing body of knowledge on curriculum reform practices within the context of a changing social-economic and cultural context;
- c) Generate data and information that would account for the social and political context within which TC2005 reform operated;

1.6 Key Research Questions

This study sought to find answers to the following THREE key questions:

- a) What role did education/curriculum stakeholders play in the 2005 curriculum reform process and with what effect?
- b) How relevant and practicable was the new curriculum to students, parents and communities?
- c) How were different management functions such as authority, decision making, supervision, control, deployment of resources and monitoring executed and with what effect to actual classroom teaching?

1.7 Focus of the Research

On the basis of the key research questions, the foci of the study were

- (a) The role of the various education and curriculum stakeholders in the reform process,
- (b) The relevance and practicability of the new curriculum to the beneficiaries,
- (c) The management of the curriculum reform process.

1.7.1 Roles of different actors

Mullins and Christy (2010) propose that when running a programme, effective management should incorporate participation of others apart from the management team at the top of the organizational hierarchy. In this study, information on the roles played by various actors in the TC2005 reform process was enriching especially given the highly centralized formal public policy system in the country. Having knowledge of the roles of different actors informed the philosophical stance and ideology of the new curriculum.

Generally, education policy-making in Tanzania has been following the classical model, with Government authorities or their representative institutions authoring and transmitting policy prescriptions to schools, and taking for granted that whatever goes down there would be accepted

unquestionably (Kiwia, 1974; Corkery & Bossuyt 1995; Sumra & Rajani, 2006). This exemplifies authoritative allocation of values which draws attention to the centrality of power, power relations and control, (Ball, 1994; Levinson *et al.* 2009). This lineal approach also suggests a dichotomy between *making* policy and *implementing* policy (Ball 1997; Ball 1994; Skilbeck, 1990). Furthermore, it contradicts the participatory model in which a host of non-system actors and practitioners at school level take part (Hicks and Buccus 2008; Sutton 1999). The model looks at school heads, teachers and students as policy mediators such that when they implement a policy from the education authorities, they are in fact authoring 'a new' policy that suits their own spatial and temporal settings, (Levinson *et al.*, 2009; Coburn, 2005; Power *et al.*, 2004).

1.7.2 Relevance of the curriculum

The new Tanzania curriculum of 2005 replaced an old one that has been in use since 1996/07. To my knowledge, there has not been any comprehensive scholarly study conducted on this curriculum save for some annual review reports under the auspices of the Ministry of Education, and partly as a requirement by financiers. My study therefore was timely in that it probed on the relevance of a newly introduced curriculum policy given the potential of education in fighting poverty, (Fukuda-Parr and Kumar, 1994). In the disadvantaged communities that participated in the study, the need for them to navigate the current waves of socio-economic changes with a relevant curriculum was even more crucial because of the inherent failure indicators such as mass failure in examinations, increasing school drop outs rates and attrition rates especially for girls and gender disparity (Sendalo 2009; Nelson *et al.* 2009; and Semali 1994).

As stated in Bruner, (1996); Barnes (2006); Carr-Hill and Peat (2005); Kratli (2001) and Molteno *et al.*, curriculum relevance bridges the gap between students' home culture and school culture, and also connects them to the material, experience, and perceptions (Mestre 2005; Barnett and Ceci, 2002; Bransford, *et al.*, 1999). In the sampled study districts, the children have had a rich life experience in home chores, crop and animal

husbandry, fishing, and crafts before enrolling in school. At school, they would wish to see a connection between their pre-school experiences and what they actually learn, (Carr-Hill and Peart, 2005; Clark, 1995; and Jarvis 2006:197). In Tanzania, studies by revealed the existence of a positive correlation between such school failures and wider socio-economic factors (Sendalo *op.cit.*; Semali *op.cit.* and Nelson *op. cit.*

1.7.3 Managing the curriculum reform process

Information on how the TC2005 reform process was managed informed the research on the vision, purpose, and provision of resources to meet the intended objectives. The data also informed on how planning was carried out with due cognizance of the prevailing conditions in the study districts; and also on whether the finances allocated to schools were commensurate with the planned tasks. Management entails planning, setting objectives, deploying financial and human assets, measuring results and recording information for future reference (Boddy, (2014). According to Robbins *et al.*, (2010), there are three key functions of the management process namely (1) establishing a road map on what is to be done; (2) deploying human, material and fiscal resources to enable planned tasks to be executed; and (3) measuring results for feedback and decision-making.

Furthermore, management includes communication, an element considered elsewhere to be the pivotal role of the management function. Effective communication ensures flow of information and promotes a harmonious relationship between individuals and the management in organizations. The term 'organisation' here is used in its wider perspective to include social systems such as (education, health ...) which are essentially purposely made in order to achieve controlled performance in pursuit of collective goals (Hargie *et al. op.cit.*).

Communication also helps in clarifying issues, tracking what is taking place where and when, and keeps all parties interested in the programme well-informed. This is even more important in the highly centralized Tanzania education system serving more than 21,000 schools, and some of them located in remote areas (URT, MoEVT 2011). Knowledge on communication

strategies during the TC2005 reform process therefore informed the study regarding the various media used to send information to the schools and districts, and receive feedback

1.8 Significance

This research is expected to contribute to the existing body of knowledge on improving practices in formulating and managing curriculum development and curriculum change in developing countries and especially sub-Saharan African countries that are struggling to provide education to their poor majorities in order to meet Education-for-All (EFA) goals. Specifically, the study will:

1. Expose gaps in the curriculum process in Tanzania and suggest ways of addressing them.
2. Generate information and data on the problems facing implementation of curriculum and change at various levels, and in specific institutions.
3. Provide a useful base on which policy makers and curriculum developers and implementers will design better models, strategies and management procedures to enhance performance and practice in further curriculum changes.
4. Act as a basis for further research on the theory and practices of curriculum conceptualization, management and change.
5. Contribute to an existing body of knowledge on efficient and effective curriculum change management practices within the context of changing economic and socio-cultural policies.

1.9 Limitations

This study had some limitations that are worth mentioning. First was the issue of self-reporting of the data as I gathered and managed them myself. As such, I took at face-value what the participants volunteered to tell me through the interviews, the focus group sessions and the questionnaires. There were for example cases of participants' failure to recall things that happened in TC2005 when the new curriculum was launched as I carried out data collection six years later.

Second was limitation in accessing participants. As pointed earlier, this study involved collecting data from institutions and individuals in various positions as well as from official documentation. A few of the participants found in the various stations were acting on behalf of their heads who were away. In such capacity, they were rather reluctant to volunteer information which they felt their heads would not be pleased with. Related to this was the fact that there are no comprehensive scientific studies on TC2005 within the period of its life time. This limited the scope of my analysis and establishing trend and a meaningful relationship. As for the documentary search, I was not able to access any of the government sources that was considered restricted. And yet I believe in such documents, there may have rich information that would have contributed to my findings.

Third, the time limitation provided for completing the study (36-48 months) also had a ripple effect on the various stages of the assignment such as data collection and analysis.

The fourth limitation was the absence of data that I felt I should have collected differently. As explained earlier in the chapter, data for the study was availed through interviews, focus group discussion sessions questionnaires and documentary reviews. However, as I was carrying on with data analysis, I felt that perhaps, I should also have done some classroom observation for the purpose of establishing actual translating of the curriculum policy into knowledge.

The fifth and final limitation was the controversy in the concept of disadvantaged communities/districts. The study investigated curriculum reform, management and implementation with special emphasis on disadvantaged districts of Tanzania. The concept is often viewed from an economic perspective especially in developing world (Ritzer 2004). In this way, certain groups of the population that may be economically sound but disadvantaged in a different perspective may be excluded. For instance there are so many disadvantaged communities in the western world as well as noted by Lister (2004) and Ritzer (2004), Atkinson and Kintrea (2001).

But again even within the ‘disadvantaged districts’ such as the ones visited during the field work, there might have been pockets of relatively advantaged groups.

1.10 Chapter Summary

In this chapter I described and stated the problem and its location. I also described the concept of curriculum reform and why nations revisit their curricula. I then went on to state the purpose of this study and the three key questions which are answered in this thesis. Thereafter, I explained the focus of the study and why I thought it was important to conduct a study of this nature. I concluded the chapter by describing a few elements that constrained the study. The next chapter will describe the history of education Tanzania as a way of locating my research in its social, political and educational setting.

CHAPTER TWO

EDUCATION IN TANZANIA: A HISTORICAL CONTEXT

2.1 Introduction

In this chapter, I trace the history of formal education in Tanzania beginning with how indigenous communities in the country transmitted their cultural values through generations. This is followed by the arrival of traders of Arabic origin from the Orient in the 8th Century. These foreigners who brought in Islamic culture also settled and helped to enrich Ki-Swahili - the Bantu language that communities along the East African coastline spoke. They also established a form of schooling - *madrassa* education where basic Arabic literacy and numeracy were taught. The ensuing culture was briefly disturbed by the Portuguese in the 16th Century as they searched for the trade route to India though they did not have much impact on education. I then describe the arrival of the Albusaid family members from Oman who reinforced Arabic and Islamic values along the Indian Ocean coastline as well as in mainland Tanganyika. I later describe how this culture was interfered by the arrival of westerners beginning with the explorers and Christian missionaries as predecessors of colonialism and establishment of western-type of schools. I conclude the chapter with a description of the education of Tanzania as an independent country and the reforms that took place thereon.

2.2 Indigenous Education

Before the 'Whiteman' set foot in Tanzania (formerly Tanganyika), the ethnic communities inhabiting the land imparted social skills and values to their young generations through indigenous-cum-traditional education (Mushi 2009; Nyerere 1974, Chami 1999,). In fact this was also the case in several other parts of Black Africa (Marah 2006; Dei 2002; Bay *et al.* 1986; Boateng 1983). The practice was intimately integrated with the socio-cultural, artistic, religious and recreational life of each community. A child received education beginning at birth through adulthood. Boys and girls were trained in different settings because of the different roles they would perform by the time they grew up; viz. motherhood and wifely roles for

girls; and skilled hunters, cattle herders, land tillers, blacksmiths or fishers for boys, in accordance with the dominant means of livelihood of the group as it was dictated by its geographical locale. Adeyemi and Adeyenka (cited in Agbemabiese (2002) assert that the philosophical foundation of African traditional education aimed at preparationism, functionalism, communalism, perennialism and holisticsm. In his policy paper when publicizing Education for Self Reliance, Nyerere (1974) regards this type of education to have been, more relevant to the recipients of that time than the education provided in Tanzania currently.

As noted in Sifuna 2008; Marah (2006) and Rodney (1982), traditional and indigenous education differs from the Western type of education in one key character — there were no permanent classroom walls. Thus Afro-centric authors considered a fallacy, the argument that there had been no any educational enterprise or historical civilization taking place in sub-Saharan Africa before the arrival of Europeans (Thiongo 1998, Achebe 1996). They contend that most Euro-centric authors were, presumably, influenced by their own Western cultural paradigms. The bottom line is that there may have not been schooling as it is conceptualized in the West; but there was education provision in a broader sense that explicated African cultural realities, which were, unfortunately eroded as European colonialism set in as I describe in Sections 2.4.2 and 2.4.3.

Pre-colonial Tanzania; with 120-plus ethnic groupings, mainly of Bantu ancestry was governed by unwritten social rules and regulations that determined the people's way of life and the values that were continuously passed through generations (Gabbert 2001, Willis 2001, Smith 1965, Freeman-Greenville 1962). Young members of each tribal group were first trained in social etiquette and practical skills at home through observing and participating in the parents daily chores — an apprenticeship-kind of private tutoring by an elder. The next stage followed at the onset of puberty, when training was taken over and organised by community elders through initiation ceremonies, often conducted outside the village boundaries. According to Brown (2005) and Willis (2001), the youth would often stay in these camps for several weeks getting training on 'how to

become a good community member'. Within this period the boys would be circumcised and declared adults. In a number of tribes, the youths would take on different names signifying that they had entered another stage of life and were therefore not the same again.

2.3 Arabs and the Introduction of Islamic Education

It is believed that the first foreigners to come into contact with East African coastal dwellers were from the Orient, sometime around the 8th century, specifically India, Arabia, China, Indonesia and Iran (Casson 1989, Sheriff 1987, Ingham 1962, Grenville 1962). These Asians met the Bantu population along the Indian Ocean coast line of East Africa much earlier, thanks to the support of maritime traditional technology supported by the seasonal monsoon winds. They used the Arabic word *sahel* or *sawahil* to refer to the coastline; which later became Swahili. Currently, the name refers to 'the people of the coast' - *Wa-Swahili* and their language *Ki-Swahili* (Horton and Middleton 2000; Illife 1980). As noted in Casson (op.cit.), an ancient written record (The Periplus of the Erythraean Sea - 100 AD), indicated that the Wa-Swahili were strong and highly civilized people who lived in remarkable city states. They had their own military forces, and at each place, were a set up chiefs. Archaeologists like Chittick (1974) produced substantial evidence of such claims. Through a continued and constant intercourse between them and the foreign Asians, there developed a rich exchange of ideas and commodities. Later on inter inter-marriages reinforced the exchange and a richer *Swahili* culture was curved out, has persisted all along and can be seen to this day in the form building structures, costumes and the way of dressing, food and cuisine, as well as art and music.

2.3.1 Islamic religion and culture

With the visitors from the Orient came Islam, their dominant religion. Historians posit that persecution and civil upheavals that ensued soon after Prophet Mohammed death in mid C7th, contributed to his believers' exodus to other peaceful locations including East Africa (Mazrui 2004, Norman 1963, Bein 1997). Islam was said to have strengthened governance of the African communities; and because it tolerated traditional practices such as

polygamy and herbal medicine, it attracted African converts more easily. This was in contrast to Christianity in the 19th Century which portrayed African values as retrogressive and uncivilised and thus became a threat (Thiongo 1998, Achebe 1996, Rodney 1982). In fact it has been noted elsewhere that by the early 14th Century, almost the whole of the East African coastlands had been Islamised; and Arabic had become the common language of literary and commerce. (Sheriff 1987, Ingham 1962).

2.3.2 Islamic schools

With time, the Arabic orthography assumed an important status as Islam became accepted even more by the local people. In order to be able to read the Muslim Holy Book, it was deemed necessary to attend *madrasa* (Islamic schools). Children would congregate in the veranda of a mosque or at the home of religious leader, who would also serve as the *moualim* (the instructor). In poor communities, teaching would take place under the shade of big trees.

According to Freeman-Grenville (1988), Trimingham (1964) and Freeman-Grenville (1962), *madrasa* had all the required aspects of curriculum. First, there was a purpose; that is to teach reading and writing of the Quran to the children. Second there were teaching-learning materials made up of improvised tools such as stone or wooden slates for writing letters, words and verses for the pupils to recite. Charcoal and locally-made plant colours were used as ink materials. This practice still exists in poor Muslim communities in Tanzania. Here is an example of a strategy to attend to a dire need in a disadvantaged community. A more common practice in an Islamic class even today is the use of graded primers for different levels. Third there was a teaching method i.e. choral repetition of what the instructor said and memorization of verses. Fourth, the system created its own teachers. Young men who reached the highest level of reading and interpreting the Muslim Holy Book were appointed to serve as instructors for others, and would also be authorised to serve as 'imams' - prayer leaders in the mosque. In a way, the mosque became the centre of education. To-date, it may not be a surprising for *madrasa* schools to be given priority than formal schooling.

Figure 2.1 Studying in *madrassa* schools in the Indian Ocean coastal communities, Tanzania



Source: www.google.com www.tumblr.com

www.google.com

2.3.3 The Al-Busaid Family from Oman

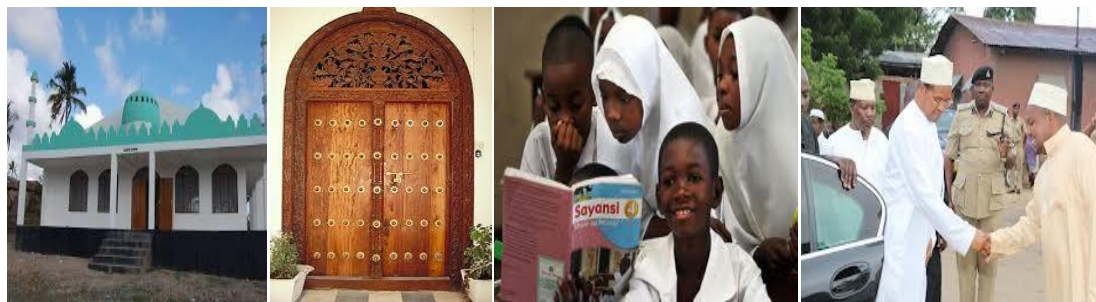
Arabs were countered by the Portuguese seafarers who explored the East African coastline on their way to India in the late C15th (Chittick 1974, Freeman (1988). Their main goal however was to control the Indian Ocean spice trade, and thus they did not do much in education; except contributing a few vocabulary items in Ki-Swahili. The Portuguese were challenged by the Albusaid sect from Oman in the 17th Century led by Seyyid Said ibn Sultan. Ascending to the throne in 1806, Seyyid Said's rule in his country coincided with the Napoleonic Wars in Europe when skirmishes among nations made the Mediterranean Sea unsafe for trading, and thus forcing many a European nation to look towards the Indian Ocean (Horton 2000). With time however, Oman descended into poverty due to civil disturbances and the prince relocated to Zanzibar in 1840 and made it the capital city of his empire. The new ruler ventured into large-scale farming of cloves and coconuts which created need for cheap slave labour (Norman 1963). As asserted in Middleton and Campbell (1965), by mid-18th Century, the Albusaid dynasty had full control of the Indian Ocean coastline from Mogadishu (Somalia) to Sofala (Mozambique).

2.3.4 Islamic cultural impact

The Arabs and precisely Islam had undoubtedly several monumental social cultural impacts to Tanzania and the whole East African region. First was the expansion of their faith and values over the African values. To-date,

Africans portraying Arabic culture in dress, cuisine and music are a norm along the coast of Tanzania and Kenya, as well as in many urban centres.

Figure 2.2 The Impact of Islamic culture in Tanzania



buildings

art

schooling

Attire

Source:
<https://www.google.co.uk/imgres>,

<http://www.guardian.co>
 m

michuziblogspot.com

Sheriff (op.cit) contends that Islam changed marriage and kinship relations and rules of inheritance and succession, and indigenous norms were unable to compete and prevail. Second, they introduced disciplines unknown to the East African hosts before such as the use of the clock as Muslims are required to pray five times a day, the 12-month lunar calendar concept because they had to observe the various religious festivals. Third was the transformation of Kiswahili from a simple local language to a lingua franca of a much larger population. A more crucial milestone however was the introduction of literacy through the use of Arabic numerals orthography. This played a major role in the establishment of the earliest formalised education as described in Section 2.3.2.

Sherrif (1987) however holds that Islam did not *arabise* the local people; rather the new comers got assimilated into the Swahili culture. This claim is debatable based on the evidence on the ground. Whereas it may be partly true that there was indeed assimilation (i.e. ethnic minority getting absorbed into ethnic majority); two things need to be elucidated. One was economic and military superiority of the minority Arabs that undoubtedly worked in their favour against the majority Africans. This can be confirmed by the historical fact that the Africans were enslaved – a phenomenon that went on for years without any serious threat of resistance from the hosts. Furthermore, pictorial evidence of any slave caravan would portray a human file of slaves controlled by just one or two Arab slave traders brandishing musket riffles and daggers (Rogan 2009). Two, assimilation is

essentially a *give-and-take* affair; that is if the foreigners lost and gained in terms of values, the hosts equally did so. So *arabization* or no *arabization* is not of significance here; rather the issue is that a stronger foreign force came with all its might, conquered and settled; and in the process their culture infiltrated that of the local people and eventually dominated (Rodney 1982, Nicholls 1971).

2.4 Introduction of Western Formal Education

The coming of Western-type of education in Tanzania can be said to be an outcome of the Berlin Conference that demarcated the African continent land mass and distributed the pieces to different European empires (Rodney op. cit., Illife 1995). The conference itself was made possible with information gathered before-hand by missionaries and explorers who upon their return to Europe set forth the process of colonization. As I describe in Section 2.4.1. Thus the process of introducing formal Western education in Tanzania can be divided into three phases as the country changed hands from one dominating power to another beginning with the Christian missionaries, the German colonizers and later the British after the Germans were defeated in WWI 1914 - 1919.

2.4.1 Christian missionary education

It is maintained by many an historical researcher that introduction of formal Western-based education in Tanzania ought to be credited to two Christian missionary organisations namely the French Catholic Holy Ghost Fathers (HGF) in 1862 and the Universities Mission to Central Africa (UMCA) in 1864 (Ploeg 1977, Illife 1979, Feierman 1990, Mushi 2009). After setting up centres in Zanzibar in the mid-19th Century, they then moved to the mainland. One should however note that these centres were established just a few years after a chain of European missionaries and explorers had visited the country in the mid-19th Century. Two German missionaries-cum-explorers (Johannes Rebman and Johann Ludwig Krapf) came in the late 1840s followed by two British explorers (John Hanning Speke and Richard Francis Burton) in the late 1850s.

Then came David Livingstone, a Scottish Congregationalist and pioneer medical missionary arrived in Zanzibar in 1866. Livingstone goes into the history of Tanzania and East Africa in general for the role he played as a slave crusader and finally succeeding in abolishing the trade that was spearheaded by the Arabs. When he failed to communicate home for some time, a colleague (Henry Morton Stanley), a journalist and explorer was sent in search of him. Karl Peters, a German colonialist, explorer, politician and author came after them; and as if to close the curtain on the stage his trip back home set in motion the 1884/85 Berlin Conference for the demarcation of Africa. Evidently, this chronology affirms the assertion that missionaries and explorers were in fact ‘an advanced party’ to pave way for colonisation (Rodney 1982). ‘The end of the exploration became the beginning of the enterprise;’ to echo Livingstone’s own words in his last days before he died (Royer, undated).

The mission stations in Zanzibar were purposely established for re-settling the freed African slaves (Willis, 2001, and Willis 1993). A similar Catholic settlement centre was later established at Bagamoyo on the mainland to further the missionary cause. This was strategic because the place was then a famous slave and ivory entrepôt on the Indian Ocean. Here, re-settled ex-slaves were introduced to some basic reading, writing, arithmetic and simple vocational skills such as agriculture and tailoring (Freeman 1988). The UMCA missionaries followed suit into the mainland and established a station at Magila in North Eastern Tanzania with permission from the Chief of the Wa-Shambala tribe in 1877. The centre was meant to be an out-reach programme point for evangelization rather than a slave-re-settling centre. A story was told that the Wa-Shambala chief decided to give them this dry and rocky patch of land so that they may find it inhabitable. It however became a blessing in disguise as the rocky patches were made of limestone rocks from which the missionaries were able to produce lime and mortar for construction of buildings.

Figure 2.3: Old building structures at UMCA Magila Mission Centre



Source: Mwananchi Newspaper Dec 12,2012

Originating from a nearby village, my recollection of Magila UMCA Mission Station was that of a complex modern village comprising two schools for boys and girls respectively, a teachers' training centre, a modern hospital, a school for nurses and hospital auxiliary staff, a workshop for vocational skills, a seminary for training the clergy, a convent and an open market place. A huge church with a high spire stood on a hill overlooking these other units as if to symbolize the dominance of the Christian faith in provision of these social services. Spending my first few years of basic schooling at Saint Martin Boys' School (Magila) has remained a memorable experience of good and bad. Ability to read and write, being the good side that opened the floodgates to further education; but not forgetting the lashes of the cane administered by the headmaster to me and my colleagues on Monday mornings for failing to attend church on a few Sundays. By implication, the church and the school were one and the same.

Commenting on the positive side of the impact of Christian missionary education, Ploeg (1977:94-95) reckons:

Missionary schooling and missionary religion helped create a group of Africans with an altered perception of their own possible achievements.missionaries provided a new pattern of existence. The mission establishment offered an opportunity to step out of traditional life, to become a teacher, an interpreter, a carpenter; to live from income, not produce; to be allowed to strive for

positions of power in terms of ability, rather than be precluded from power because of birth.

These notwithstanding, Christian missionary schools destabilized the cultural values of the local people (Gabbert 2001; Nyerere 1985; Nyerere 1974). Apart from basic literacy and some vocations, children were also taught new values of a religion based on a mono-God who considered the local people's traditional dance, ceremonies, herbal medicine or polygamy as devilish (Strayer 1978). Enrolling one's child in a mission school therefore meant converting them to Christianity; and implicitly, redefining what it meant to be educated.

2.4.2 German colonial education system

The Germans governed Tanganyika after the Berlin Conference and introduced cash crop economy that saw the colony becoming a world producer of sisal, tea, coffee, rubber and cotton (Illiffe 1979; PLOEG 1977). They also constructed road and railway networks to serve the crop producing areas so as to boost the colony's expanding economy. Further, they introduced a taxation system that was not commensurable to the people ability to pay (Willis 2001). Generally they administered the colony in contempt of the existing local structures and traditions.

On the other hand, they managed to establish an education system for Africans comprising elementary, secondary and vocational schools. Their curriculum comprised mainly of Kiswahili and German languages with the former being the instructional medium. Together with a few other academic subjects, emphasis was given to technical and vocational training as well as arts and crafts. Evidently, the purpose was to produce literate semi-skilled civil servants for the developing economy and administration structures. The few literate people in the coastal areas (a product of Islamic schools) served as the first administrative clerical staff in the German government machinery (See Section 2.3.2). The German colonial masters also established the first public education system that ran

parallel to the missionary school system. The first Tanga School in North Eastern Tanzania, 1893 and currently the oldest government school in the land,(I happen to be one of the students here between 1969 - 72). The system had clear and defined teacher qualifications, curriculum and textbooks.

The positive aspects of the German educational inputs were described as 'unmatched anywhere in Africa' and 'marvellous' (Illife (1974, Cameron 1967). No wonder therefore, Tanganyika education under the Germans became such a success story to be envied in the British Parliament in 1920:

The results of their (Germans) system are today evident in the larger number of natives scattered throughout the country (Tanganyika) who are able to read and write....; whereas the British official may often have had to risk the mutilation of his instructions to a chief by having to send them verbally. The late German system has made it possible to communicate in writing with every Akida (administrator of several villagers) and village headman; and in turn receive from him reports in Swahili. (Ploeg 1977:91

The defeat of the Germans in WWI saw the system go into disarray because the German soldiers resorted to a *scorched earth policy* as they retreated from the advancing British forces.

2.4.3 The British colonial education system

It is argued that the British who governed Tanganyika under the League of Nations' mandate (1916-1961) did not accord education the importance it deserved (Laars, 1973), but instead concentrated on setting up administrative machinery to maintain order and security and to rebuild communication utilities destroyed during the War. Laars (1973) argues that the terms of the League of Nations mandate allowed them to do so, whereas Crouch (1987) and Whitehead (1981) assert that it was a problem of interpretation of the mandate.

The major task given to the British Government by the United Nations was to administer Tanganyika and prepare the country for independence. The British interpreted this as a mandate to simply maintain law and order. Responsibility for economic development and the provision of social services, especially education was all but neglected (Crouch, 1987:16).

The end result was an education system that was inadequate both quantitatively and qualitatively in as far as the interests of the people of the colony were concerned. It is however important to note that successful implementation of British colonial social policies were dependant on who occupied the governorship of the colony as well as who headed the different government departments, education included.

Sir Horace Byatt, took over first as an administrator in 1916 to bring the country to order after the WW1; and later as Governor (1920-1924). He portrayed hostility towards the interests of fellow Europeans, and did not support the missionary school system. In fact he established a government one to compete. According to Smith (1965), his hostility towards the missionary schools was due to a German official report he came across that described inefficiency of these schools. Sir Byatt's assuming office coincided with the return of missionaries who had run away before the War, and who expressed their interest to collaborate with the Government in running the education enterprise. They felt that as a result of the War, finance was limited and thus there was need for the two parties to pull resources together rather than work individually. Unconvinced, the Government went on to create education policies of their own interest. However, the lingering question remained 'what kind of education should be provided to the people of the colony? As this was a question in all the British colonies, American experience was sought for.

Figure 2.4 German school structures still in existence in Tanzania today



Source: Researcher's field data records

This came in the form of a commission financed by the Phelps Stokes Fund and was led by an American Baptist Missionary Society, Jesse Jones, an industrialist and missionary with expertise in designing education programmes for Black ex-slaves. As described in Bude (1983:341), a five item terms of reference was provided for the commission namely to establish what was on the ground in terms of education in the colonies, to investigate the educational needs of the people within their cultural contexts, to establish how far their needs were being met, and to assist in designing educational plans to meet these needs through local resources.

After two visits to Africa, the commission's reported back on the use of obsolete European and American education and curriculum methods in the schools, in particular they noted neglect of school organisation and inspection, absence of balanced policies to ensure education for the masses, lack of cooperation amongst the providers, and Africans being denied opportunity to make educational decisions. They thus proposed a re-designing of the colonial education so as to make it adaptable to the people's way of life. Further, they called for closer collaboration amongst the partners rather than policies of separation. They also made suggestions on the curriculum, and in particular they suggested the inclusion of health and hygiene, housing and living conditions, the use of locally available resources, agricultural science, handicrafts and hobbies. On media of instruction, they emphasized the use of local languages. This framework was adopted by London, and became the basis of British colonial education in Tanganyika and other British colonies.

Sir Donald Cameron, the second governor (1925-1931) was appointed at the time when the 'Colonial Development and Welfare Act' was passed in London followed by a subsequent White Paper (Memorandum on Educational Policy in British Tropical Africa, Cmd. 2374). These policies instructed the authorities in the colonies to prepare an educated *corpus* of local population to serve in the middle ranking positions of the civil service soon after independence. The policies emphasized continued collaboration between the Government, the missionaries and others in providing education to the people. They also advised Government support to non-government schools through Grants-In-Aid (G.I.A), and recognition of Christianity as a sound basis for the entire education enterprise. The policy papers also called upon the missionaries to enhance the standards of their schools and proposed that they should be inspected by the Government. A new era of collaboration between various education agencies in Tanganyika was ushered in. Under instructions from London, the Tanganyika Advisory Committee for African Education (TACAE) comprising of representatives from the Government and from the missionaries was formed. Taking advantage of these policies (especially the G.I.A), the European and Asian communities expanded their own schooling systems and increased the number of schools in the colony. These were positive policies towards the social development of the population in the colony, only to be shattered by the Great Depression of the 1930s.

The colony, by then a world producer of sisal, cotton, coffee and rubber was tremendously affected as international trade dropped by between half and two thirds and crop prices fell, and thus impacting on tax revenue. Unemployment picked up and the economy could no longer sustain education and other social services. The colony administrators found itself in a quagmire regarding income and expenditure as the 'motherland' was not in a position to help because she has been equally hit by the depression. The only help that London made available to Tanganyika was that of a financial expert (Sir Sidney Armitage Sydney).

In his report, the expert recommended (1) slowing down the expansion of social services provision, but (2) continuation of G.I.A to mission and

voluntary schools that were performing well. With dwindling resources, the Government was not happy with the second recommendation and decided to give priority to economic responsibilities. It introduced cuts to Missionary schools first and especially in construction. According to Smith (1965), the total grant to these schools between 1931 and 1935 fell by 55 per cent. The colony then had 26 central boarding schools producing English-speaking youths ready to join the civil service as middle-rank staff. Sixteen of these were missionary-owned and eight government-owned. Five of the government-owned had to close and the missionaries were required to close ten. The Government justification as described in Smith (1965:439) given as:

...the trade recession would mean fewer openings for the 'graduates'» of these schools which would thus be producing an unemployed, discontented, yet highly vocal pressure group. The example of India, where the gross over-production of the universities had created a well organised and educated opposition movement, was never far from the thoughts of the colonial administrator and so it seemed politic to make the biggest cuts at the top

The missionaries in unison rejected this move, with a justification of course; and albeit a stronger one that the purpose of education was not simply that of producing clerks to fill job vacancies, but also to raise the general level of culture of the whole country. The Missionaries could, in any case, absorb their own surplus as teachers or as priests or preachers (Smith op.cit).

Writing in support of the missionaries, Mumford (1935:199) faults the colonial Government logic for the cuts arguing that the absence of particular kind of jobs in the market does not necessarily imply that schools should be reduced in number. Rather, what is needed is to change the kind of training to match. He further points out that a school has a dual purpose and should not only be created only as a training institution (economic) as it is also a cultural (moral) centre. As moral centres, schools

have nothing to do with availability of jobs in the market. Similar views were expressed by Williams (1961) and UNESCO (2004).

On the basis of such an argument, the colonial education administrators were driven into a cul-de-sac and London had to intervene by directing that G.I.A to missionary schools be based on teachers' salaries and not on developmental budget. This became a leeway for the government to act as it was the salary paying authority for the teachers in the missionary school. Cuts on teachers' salary were introduced immediately, a decision that led to the number of mission schools dropping substantially as teachers resigned to look for greener pastures. They could no longer manage to live on just a fraction of their previous packages. Smith (1965) notes that by 1938, mission schools had only 47 per cent of the required teaching force. London had to export teachers to fill the gaps. This decision also implied that the number of students from the central schools who could speak English was reduced tremendously, a move that was detrimental to the Government as it led to fewer staff for colony's economy that was gradually picking up from the depression in the 1940s.

Cutting teachers' salaries because of a world recession, and thus leading to closure of schools in Tanganyika was unquestionably a hypocritical decision by the Government, in the sense that no similar action was taken in Britain; which was equally hit hard by the economic down turn. What was regarded as 'good for the goose' was not necessarily 'good for the gander!' So to speak. On another note, Gallabawa (1990) contends that the British were pessimistic in investing in education in Tanganyika as the place was merely a conquered territory with less value to them compared to Kenya which had many more British settlers. After all, its economy was modelled to serve the German market.

As hostilities between the two parties continued, the Government planned to hand over all primary schools to the Native Authorities (NAs), a system established by the new governor in 1925 on justification that the move would enable children from non-Christian homes to get education in circular schools and preserve their faiths at the same time. They could not

do so in the Christian-faith oriented schools. Indeed this was the earliest move towards non-sectarian education provision in the country. Moreover, NA controlled schools were expected to be institutions for the preservation of local traditional values which had started to be eroded by Christian schooling. The Missionaries were not convinced.

Another factor that fuelled the government-missionary hostility was the establishment of out-post centres in the villages (bush schools) where a missionary educated person would teach religious education and basic literacy. The Government accused the missionaries for insincerity for using the bush schools as 'baits to catch converts' under the pretext of providing education, and branded the centres as outreach mechanisms for evangelism and fighting traditional beliefs (Smith, 1965). On the contrary, the Missionaries thought of them as demand-driven centres that intended to address people's needs as they became aware of the benefits of western education. They Missionaries branded the colonial authorities in the colony as anti-Christian. They also felt that they were reaching places where the Government had not reached yet and thus were supporting the Government's endeavour to fight a common a common enemy.

In 1939, London called for a policy change in the colonies that necessitated developing new socio-economic development plans. Even with the policy change, the Government went on to affirm the handing over of primary schools to the NAs and proposed that both the Government and the Missionaries would be represented in the NA education meetings. The Missionaries had more schools in the country and they therefore saw the reason for being over-looked.

As the atmosphere in Tanganyika was then not conducive for engaging in a harmonious dialogue between the two parties, the Missionaries decided to engage the help of a joint religious groups' body created to oversee inter-church affairs at the national level (Tanganyika Missionary Council, TMC) established in 1934. Engaging the services of a a member of the Church Missionary Society in London, who also served as an advisor to the Colonial Office, they appealed for intervention. In summary, they complained that:

... the recommendations of the White Paper, Cmd. 2374, were being violated in the general policy of the Education Department, and in the future plans embodied in the Report; grants had been cut, bush schools, the feeders to the recognised schools ... was restricted; the missionary share of future development was to be reduced; and ... the missions were to be excluded from all the local education authorities planned by the Department (Smith, 1965:448)

London regarded these as serious allegations that necessitated the establishment of a sub-committee to deliberate on, and requested the colonial administration to respond and an advisor was hurriedly dispatched to Dar es Salaam on a fact-finding mission.

The subcommittees reported in favour of the Missionaries and almost condemned the authorities in Tanganyika for excluding them from the NA system. The report thus advised equal representation failure of which would be opposing the recommendations of the Colonial Office. The handing over of primary education to the NAs was termed 'doing a poor service' to the African as it would impose unreal powers and responsibilities on communities that were still developing. On bush schools, the report advised that they should continue to be established, jointly with the NAs and the Missionaries. Consequently, some of these could later be upgraded to primary level. On the Government's intention to expand teachers' output by building its own colleges, it was advised otherwise and instead expansion of facilities in Missionary teachers' colleges was recommended. Regarding TACAE more and regular consultative meetings were advised as a permanent way to reduce squabbles.

In summary, the Missionaries-versus-colonial administration conflict was largely a funding problem rather than anything else. It appears that the Missionaries were doing the right thing but at the wrong time. The provision of GIA for example was a Government policy, and hence there was nothing wrong asking for it. On the other hand, these were hard financial times for the Government due to the economic downturn such

that funds were not coming into the government coffers at a rate required. Obviously when resources are limited tensions are likely to occur. Regarding the sympathy of the Colonial Office in London towards the Church, it could be argued that the two had a closer relationship than the colonial administrators were able to comprehend. Quist (2001:301) elaborates:

British policy in colonies led to flexibility.... that was manifested in the diffusion of missionary schooling following the ample space and scope granted them. This was due to the British colonial government (in London) recognition of churches existing dominant position in education as beyond dispute. Probably, it was also because the churches (missions) were seen by the colonial government as a part of the colonising forces and agents of colonialism in the practical sense.

Similar views had been expressed by Rodney (1981), Steiner and Quist (2000). It was therefore not surprising that the missionaries won the fight and continued to operate along the Government system until independence in 1961.

In conclusion, let me summarise the characteristic and weaknesses of colonial education in Tanganyika. First, as pointed out earlier, it was a racist three-tier system with each tier catering for one of the three major racial groups Europeans, Asians and Africans. Whitehead (1981) suggests that racially segregated education was a common practice in several British colonies, and thus presumably a hidden policy of the Empire to reinforce the system of divide-and-rule. Julius Nyerere, who later became the President of independent Tanganyika, had an opportunity to speak to the United Nations 579th Meeting of the Fourth Committee as he was fighting for independence of the country. In his speech, he elaborated on the inequality in providing educational inputs in Tanganyika due to unequal provision of funds on the basis of this policy:

Last year, the Government had £3,200,000 from the Custodian of Enemy Property fund to spend on education. After setting aside

£800,000 for our future university, the Government divided the rest equally between the three racial groups — the 25,000 Europeans, the 70,000 Asians and the 8,000,000 Africans each receiving 8,000,000 to spend on the education of their children. Needless to say, Madam, that it is an equality which may please the Governor of Tanganyika, but to the Africans it is slightly irritating (Lema et al 2004:9).

Second there was limited educational opportunities availed to African children. Schools were unevenly distributed with urban areas being favoured compared to rural areas. Furthermore, even the few that were enrolled, a larger portion were not able to complete the primary cycle especially girls. The situation was even worse for secondary and higher levels. At most the few available places were allocated to urban areas and sons of tribal chiefs. In fact that was how Nyerere (himself the son of a tribal chief) managed to enter Makerere and Edinburgh universities in 1943 and 1949 for his undergraduate and graduate programmes respectively.

Third, the system carried much weight on academics and less on vocations and trade-oriented disciplines. This reinforces the allegation that it just intended to produce lower and middle rank staff for the colony's economic sector and the administrative structure. Nyerere (1974) argues that the long term impact of this feature was that it directed the recipients towards white-collar jobs. And because these were only available in towns, it contributed greatly to rural-urban migration.

Fourth, the curriculum and content were foreign to Africans as they were based on the English school system, and hence irrelevant to the children and their environment. The content emphasized Western civilization and knowledge; which was translated by African educationists as a deliberate move to portray to the people that theirs was an inferior culture and that they had to acquire new attitudes and values (Rodney, 1981). A British soldier (Clarke, 1995) who later became a teacher in a local colonial secondary school in Southern Tanganyika in 1947 listed the following as some of the core books he used for teaching English: Charles Dickens'

fiction list, several English classics such as the Journey's End that describes the life experiences and fate of a British soldier during the war in France, the Cambridge Lessons in English, and the story of David Livingstone by R. Coupland. The examination authority was Cambridge University. He then narrates the attempt by a colleague to introduce British breakfast at the school which proved a failure. Fifth, Christian values were part of the school curriculum especially in the Mission schools and thus Muslims were compelled to change faith or rejected from enrolling in such schools.

Children were taught to be submissive and never question whatever they were told to because it was God-given. This set a dangerous precedence of keeping quiet even for un-Godly deeds committed by the clergy. Evidence abounds today from the recent media revelations in the West of the clergy abusing the children under their care under their care more than fifty years ago (BBC news). This time span coincides with the time when their colleagues were out in different parts of Africa establishing mission centres and evangelizing. With all due respect to the Church, nobody knows what may have happened to the children in the remote mission stations. Coupled with the fact that the media in many African countries are not as investigative as in the West, such cruelty (if there were any), may as well die with the unfortunate victims.

In a speech to the Maryknoll Sister's Conference (a Catholic Order) in New York in 1970, Nyerere (a devout Catholic himself) underscored the fact that that the Church seemed to have gone off the rails by teaching submissiveness and not taking action against social domination. He challenged them that it was then opportune to turn about and act:

... kindness, ...piety...charity is not enough. The men ... now suffering from poverty, ... need to be helped to stretch themselves; they need to be given confidence ... to ... control ...their own lives. This is important to the Church ... For until men are in a position to make effective choices, few of them will become Christians in anything but name. Their membership of the Church will be simply another

method by which they seek to escape from a consciousness of their misery; if you like, religion becomes a kind of opium of the people. Everything that prevents a man from living in dignity and decency must therefore be under attack from the Church (Nyerere, 1974:91).

2.5 Education in the Post-independent Era

Between 1961 and 1966, Tanzania embarked on changing its education system to best serve the interests of an independent state. The intervention commenced with the passing in the Parliament of Education Act of 1962 that repelled the colonial Education Ordinance of 1927. The new law abolished racial discrimination in education and harmonised the three racial systems into one. Mbenna (2009:56) reports that previously; European children followed a 9:4 education system, while Asians and Africans followed a 6:6 and a 4:4:4 system respectively. The new Act introduced a 7:4:4 for the whole country. The Act also streamlined curriculum, examination and financing, promoted Ki-Swahili and English and made them media of instruction in primary and tertiary levels respectively, provided more responsibility to local communities in administering education and established the Unified Teachers Services.

As it would seem, the concentration was more on expanding access rather than on changing the philosophical orientation of education. According to Mbenna (op.cit), this was a period of transition and with less experience in running state organs; the most notable weakness in education was denial of equitable access to African children.

In February 1967, the Central Committee of the ruling political party passed a blue print titled the Arusha Declaration, a prominent policy statement that emphasised the country's route towards African socialism. Section Three of the policy reiterated the need to become self reliant and opens as follows:

We are at War. TANU (the ruling party) is involved in a war against poverty and oppression in our country; the struggle is aimed at

moving the people of Tanzania ... from a state of poverty to a state of prosperity. We have been oppressed a great deal, we have been exploited a great deal, and we have been disregarded a great deal. It is our weakness that has led to our being oppressed, exploited and disregarded. Now we want a revolution - a revolution which brings an end to our weakness, so that we are never again exploited, oppressed, or humiliated.

One of the major strategies to address the ills mentioned above was education and hence the President authored a policy paper - Education for Self-Reliance (ESR).

2.5.1 The Philosophy of Education for Self Reliance

This particular policy paper was more of a philosophical presentation than a policy. It considered appropriate education to Tanzanian children to be one that was oriented towards rural life, engaged students in productive activities, involved students in planning and decision making, integrated theory and practice and hence made production part of the school curriculum. The policy also sought to downgrade the weight of examinations and suggested that enrolment in primary education should begin at age 7; meaning that at the end of the cycle (P7) a boy or girl would be 14 and thus old enough to join the family in farm work and other productive activities. Primary school curriculum was intended to be 'complete' to enable those who would not transit to secondary education to function as members of their communities. Certainly, this was an approach that reversed the colonial education philosophy that alienated recipients from their cultural contexts and inculcated foreign values by training students for white-collar jobs. The ESR philosophy thus intended to restore traditional African values destroyed by colonialism (Major and Mulvihill (2009), Mulenga (2001)).

On the purpose of education, the policy stated that education systems in different societies globally were different in organisation and content.

They are different because the societies providing the education are different, and because education, whether it be formal or

informal has a purpose. That purpose is to transmit from one generation to the next, the accumulated wisdom and knowledge of the society, and to prepare the young people for their future membership of the society and their active participation in its maintenance or development (Nyerere, 1967:1)

On the whole, ESR met with successes as well as some substantial failures due to internal and external factors. On successes, Samoff (1990) asserts that primary education became virtually universal; curriculum materials gained distinctively Tanzanian flavours; and schooling used local language. On the other hand, there were severe shortages of physical resources, and poor understanding of the policy itself. For instance, many teachers and administrators translated ESR to mean working in the schools gardens at the expense of classroom academic work. The system also could not afford to play down the domineering power of examinations that were continuously used as transition to higher levels. Moreover as this was also a time of expansion, instructional quality was affected because teacher training was geared towards producing more teachers than quality ones.

The major global factor that impacted on ESR was the Oil Crisis of the 1970s that led to serious economic imbalances as a huge portion of its foreign budget had to be allocated for the procurement of industrial fuel. The economy declined causing the Government to cut spending on education, health and other social sectors, an action that led to serious scarcity of school consumables and poor infrastructure. Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP) was offered as a condition to borrow from the international donors to offset the imbalances. By the mid 1980s, it was clear that ESR was failing as the public expressed their concern on the falling standards as well as the poor state of schools. A Presidential Commission was appointed to look into the matter.

Gallabawa (1990) considers ESR problems from two opposing perspectives i.e. those who look at the face value of objectives of ESR as against those who argue from an orthodox criterion of quality. He challenges them all that theirs is a wrong interpretation of the philosophy because in the first place, after all the policy did not intend to change Tanzania to a complete

socialist state. He also argues that quality is a complex concept that cannot simply be measured by looking at examinations results.

2.5.2 The current status of education in Tanzania

The current education programmes are operated on the basis of the 1995 Education and Training Policy and the Education Sector Development Program (ESDP) in response to macro social policies including the National Poverty Reduction Strategy. The ESDP has redefined the country's educational priorities with the involvement of different stakeholders. Plans for the different levels of the system have been drawn up and implemented beginning 2002 with funding from international financial institutions.

The primary and secondary levels have been expanded to take in an increasing cohort in response to the MDGs. This has resulted in falling quality as the system struggles to cope. Physical resources are lacking and teachers have never been sufficient for years. They also suffer in quality as trainees with low grades are taken into colleges to train as teachers. School communities and local government institutions have been given more power in decision making but poverty has been a serious hindrance. The curriculum reviewed in 2005 was thought to address the need for skills in the 21st Century. Evidence on the ground does not illustrate this to have been achieved.

2.7 Chapter Summary

In this chapter, I described the history of education in Tanzania. Beginning with the pre-historic time, I traced how communities educated their young using systems that were later changed by the arrival of foreigners. These were the Arabs from the Orient, the Germans and later the British. The latter two brought with them their system of education that emphasized Western values that were detrimental to people's traditional values. I concluded the chapter by describing the current education system of Tanzania. In the next chapter, I describe the concepts of curriculum and curriculum reform.

CHAPTER THREE

CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT AND REFORM

3.1 Introduction

In this chapter, I review the literature related to curriculum development and reform in order to locate this study within existing studies. I begin by presenting an overview of curriculum as a concept and tracing it from its ancient roots. I then present four models of curriculum design which suggest different ways of how it is conceptualised in different societies. Thereafter, I discuss education and society in order to establish the close relationship of the two.

3.2 Curriculum: An Overview

It is generally believed that the main purpose of providing school education is to change the behaviour of the recipients as well as to provide access to culturally-valued knowledge. According to Moss (2013), Stambach (2010), Bates (2009) and Goodlad & MacMannon (1997), students who have undergone behavioural change would display higher skills in understanding concepts, performing activities and in show positive change in their attitudes. These experts also argue that this change of behaviour through schooling can only be made possible with the existence of a structured curriculum. As is the tradition for many other concepts in the academic and professional world, definition of curriculum has been the source of contestation all along.

As argued by John Franklin Bobbit in one of the earliest works on the subject (*The Curriculum*), the term originated from the chariot tracks of ancient Greece, (Kelly 2009, Marsh 2004, Pinnar 1995). Later on, the Latin term *currere* (to run or to proceed) was adopted to represent it, such that running a race was compared to following a curriculum. Students in a school setting were thus compared to a group running a course of deeds and experiences through which they would transit to adulthood in their society. Marsh (op.cit) asserts that Bobbit went further to include in his definition the entire scope of formative deeds and experiences taking place in and out of school as well as unplanned and undirected

experiences. Indeed, one can argue that school activities today do not differ much from participating in a race course. The winners of the race will be those who will successfully pass the barriers mounted on the way, namely the various subjects as well as the tests and examinations instituted by the education systems.

As the Greeks embarked on furthering and expanding their civilization, their philosophers generalised the concept to the different subjects taught in their gymnasia to meet societal purposes. For example Sparta (an authoritarian, military city-state) trained boys in sprinting, jumping, javelin, discus throwing, swimming, hunting and gymnastics in order to produce the best soldier-citizens. Aesthetic subjects such as music and dance were also included for this same purpose. Its competitor city - Athens (a democracy) aimed at producing citizens trained in the arts both for peaceful as well as for war as then this was inevitable. The students were trained in calisthenics and other games; they learnt how to play various musical instruments as well as singing, rhetoric, poetry and oratory (Ackerman, (2003). In preparation for defending their state during enemy invasion, they were given training in sprinting, boxing, wrestling, discus and javelin throwing.

Peace and war can thus be taken to be the cultural elements of the classical Greek society, and thus training the young generation in the subjects here-above expresses a conscious selection of some basic cultural elements that needed to be emphasized as others were omitted. In his work (the Long Revolution), Raymond Williams, a Welsh academic, novelist and critic points out that the content of a curriculum helps to guide distribution of education in society as the cultural choices involved in the selection exist in organic relationship with the social choices (Williams 1966). Greek and Latin philosophical thinking later greatly impacted on Western school curricula systems. In the UK for example, by the 17th Century, the University of Glasgow was using the term *curriculum* to refer to the courses of study offered (Bryce & Humes, 2003, Devine & Wormald, 2012); with other universities in the continent beginning to use the term in

the 19th Century routinely to describe both their degree programmes as well as particular course contents.

The meaning of curriculum has continued to widen to the extent that a variety of other meanings of the concept were brought in by both the general public and professionals. There are those who consider it to be the teaching and instructions offered to students, but there are also others that only associate it with documented instructions sent to schools by authorities for the teachers to translate into meaningful knowledge (Kelly 2009:7; Murphy & Moon, 1999:2). Interestingly even teachers at times seem to differ in what they refer to as curriculum. Marsh (2004) for example asserts that some of these teachers took curriculum to include the lessons to be covered in a day, the skills supposed to be imparted to the learners, or the plans developed in order to attain class and school objectives. In summary, concise definitions of curriculum have continued to occupy polarities as noted (Murphy & Moon, 1999).

With the progressive movement in the USA, consensus was struck on two aspects of curriculum namely *planning* and *provision* (Martin & Goodman, 2001; Murphy & Moon, 1999; Raggart & Horton, 1998; Beyer & Liston, 1996). The consensus was that planned curriculum should be selected from the society's culture, and the means of delivery should be tailored to fit the prevailing cultural practices. Besides, the planned curriculum needs were also to take cognisance of learners' interests, values and abilities.

The above line of argument leads to three distinctions of curriculum, namely the *intended* (government prescriptions contained in different subject syllabuses), the *enacted* (what actually goes on in the classrooms), and the *attained* curriculum (what the students actually learn). This distinction underscores the importance of *what* is to be taught and *how*. In other words, the content meant for students' learning and the methods of delivery need not be ad-hoc, rather they should be well-thought of and organized procedures to guarantee achievement of goals. I will deal with this assertion comprehensively in Section 3.4.2 of this chapter. Suffice to only say here that some of the definitions were more forward looking and

emphasised the students' needs and values. For example Quicke (1999:1) claims that:

A curriculum provides a framework for learning. It suggests that of all the things that could be learned, these particular things have the most value; and it does this with reference to the educational needs of the students ... and the social and political context in which teaching and learning takes place. In its broadest sense, the curriculum includes the 'how' and the 'what' of learning which occurs formally and informally inside educational institutions as well as outside such institutions.

Comprehensive as this definition appears to be, the idea that there might be informal learning calls for further exploration as it has a bearing on the data collected from the field work for this study. This rather 'accidental' learning (Ormel, 1979) - also known as the hidden curriculum comprises of things that students learn from the way the enacted curriculum is organised and delivered. According to Kelly (2009), the students themselves are not included in the planning or sometimes even in the consciousness of those responsible in the school. Social roles, attitudes and values are said to be learnt this way.

In the case of Tanzania, school curriculum has been prescribed by the Government through the Ministry of Education for the past fifty years (Mbenna, 2009, Mushi 2009). After a critical reading of the TC2005 policy documents, and bearing in mind that this policy was passed for use at the beginning of the 21st Century, one would feel the need to establish what the Government intentions were and to what extent were they in line with actual practices in different contexts on the ground.

3.3 Curriculum Theories and Models

McCutcheon (1982) defined curriculum theories as sets of analyses, interpretations and understanding of curricular phenomena i.e. formally (overt) or hidden, as well as those that they do not get opportunity to be learnt because they are excluded (null curriculum). He argues that

curriculum theories are about what goes on in people's heads and yet they are practical phenomena. In summary, he categorises the curriculum phenomena as given in Table 3.1:

On the basis of McCutcheon (ibid.) categorization, curriculum theories are useful in guiding the teaching process, education research, development of school curricula, formation of policies, and educational administration. They can serve as maps to enable different perceptions and thus may lead to alternative ways of approaching education in general. They could also help in:

... envisioning consequences of those alternatives, examining our own practice, and hence deciding how to act. In other words, they could facilitate our deep understanding of curriculum matters and that understanding could enable us to improve what we think and do (McClutcheon 1982:20).

Furthermore, curriculum models help designers to systematically and transparently map out the rationale for the use of particular teaching, learning and assessment approaches.

Table 3.1: The Curriculum Phenomena

The Curriculum in use	The Curriculum as enactment
i. The curriculum development process,	i. Teachers' planning
ii. The politics of curriculum argumentation	ii. How teachers enable learners to access materials
iii. Social forces - <i>state mandates, local regulations, court or board of education decisions</i>)	iii. Received curriculum - the sense learners make of it.
iv. The sociology of knowledge	iv. Relationship among the enacted curriculum, society, human development and learning theory;
v. The type, nature and the process of developing the teaching-learning materials	iv. Organisation of the curriculum
i.e. type	v. Influences on its use - teachers' conception of schooling, parental pressure on teachers and learners to deviate from the norm;
	vi) The learning that students get from the hidden curriculum

Source: McCutcheon (1982)

Kemmis (2007) traces the origin of curriculum theories from Aristotle's categorisation of knowledge in which he differentiated between *technical* and *practical* thinking. He describes technical thinking as a guided process which follows an established framework that employs different means to achieve ends. This process can be evaluated in order to establish whether the intended goals have been achieved, and if the established rules have been adhered to. On the other hand, he considers practical thinking as a process that involves doing actions that may be risky, guided by morals and which may, at times, appear contradictory. Hence what is right or humane is largely the making of moral value judgements. Kemmis (ibid.) nevertheless does not completely deny the presence of moral judgement in technical decisions. Rather, he contends that technical decisions have moral social effects guided within a framework of moral values although they are not concerned with the technical means by which ends can be attained; that is the moral questions on whether those means ought to be pursued.

Other thinkers have adapted similar line of argument in an attempt to explain the purpose of education. See for example Trohler (2013), Green (2013), Cook (2007), Cubberley (2005), Graves (2004) and Williams (1960). Their ideas later became the anchor for the education enterprise in the Western World. Then, and as a consequence of colonization and the adaptation of Western education in the colonies, these ideas influenced the way education was provided in the Third World

Models on the other hand are representations of complex realities showing the basic structures and components to support understanding. Hence curriculum development models represent the process of curriculum in a clearer way. O'Neill (2010) asserts that a commonly described and rather simplistic distinction of the curriculum process is that of two polarised models referred to by many authors as the 'Product Model' and the 'Process Model', with the former emphasising 'plans and intentions, and the latter focussing on activities and effects. The following four curriculum models are based on this categorisation.

3.3.1 Model I: Curriculum as a body of knowledge

This model is concerned with content and thus takes the curriculum to be what is contained in the various subjects i.e. the body of knowledge (Kelly op.cit). The model puts much emphasis on the syllabus as a career of the different subjects whose content has to be imparted to the students, and later examined. A syllabus is supposed to comprise of some clear demarcation and organization of the specific areas that may be examined such as course title, course description, method of instruction, course objectives, course topics and dates, textbooks and required tools, grading plan, course validation and remarks. It may also indicate the sequence of the items to be studied. The implications of this approach is two-fold: One, education is taken to be a process of transferring the prescribed content to students using the best possible means (Blenkin *et al* 1992), and two, it divorces classroom teachers from the curriculum making process, such that they remain transmitters of what they received from the education authorities (Kelly op.cit).

3.3.2 Model II: Curriculum as a product

Also known as the objective model, the product model of curriculum development can be traced back to Ralph Tyler's earliest work (*Basic Principles of Curriculum and Instruction*, 1949), and later to Daryl Wheeler's work (*Curriculum Process*, 1967). The product model was intended to attain a certain pre-planned and prescribed end-product. Presented in a cyclical format, the key elements in this model include situation analysis, identifying aims and objectives, selecting and organising content, selecting and organising learning activities and carrying out evaluation. According to Keating (2006), the product model was expected to answer four key questions - (i) What are the educational purposes of schooling? (ii) What experiences should be provided to attain these purposes? (iii) How can these experiences be organised effectively? (iv) How can one determine whether these purposes have been achieved?

A major characteristic of the product model of curriculum is that it emphasises plans and intentions, and set objectives in behavioural terms

(Fotheringham *et al.*, 2012 and O'Neill, 2010). It therefore expects students to show change of behaviour at the end of the learning session. It is speculated that the product model of curriculum design may have been influenced by Taylorism (Scientific Management thinking) that greatly enhanced competencies in vocational-oriented jobs. Fotheringham *et al* (2012:1) describe this relationship in detail as follows:

Curriculum is often conceptualised as 'product' which is an almost entirely discipline-focused orientation. The structure and content of a programme of study are dominated by industry and professional regulation requirements. This conception of curriculum is often associated both with professional body requirements and with the employability agenda.

The implication of this model is that the making of school curriculum was understood to involve a painstaking planning and development process that culminated in assessing the students to establish their status. It was thus more of a technical process. The model was described to be strong in as far as the behavioural objectives were concerned. First they facilitated communication of what was intended and therefore led to more purposeful learning. Second, they helped in selection of structure and content of teaching, and third, they led to more accurate methods of testing and evaluation.

Critics of the model on the other hand, have pointed out that because it focused on evaluation that occurred at the end of learning experiences, it was emphasising a summative approach while according less priority to what took place along the way (Eisner, 1994, Eisner, 2001). They also argued that the model does not provide a clear social vision to guide production of curriculum (Knight, 2001, Billings & Halstead 2009). Over time, its emphasis on objectives became obsolete as progressive education movements came onto the scene in the late 19th Century with their emphasis experience, entrepreneurship, critical thinking, problem solving and cooperative learning (Ackerman, 2003).

Hussey & Smith (2008) have also challenged the model for its focus on learning outcomes which, they argue, are often unpredictable and

impracticable. Maher (2004) lists a few other challenges of the model as follows: (i) Its priority on behavioural objectives is problematic because they cannot be applied to aesthetic-related subjects; (ii) the model is too taxing to teachers in lesson preparation, and (iii) it makes learners relatively passive in the learning process. Perhaps the best summary of these weak points was the one given by (Sheehan 1986:677) thus “the product model emphasises trivial behaviours at the expense of more important outcomes” These challenges notwithstanding, Tyler’s model was not only strong and rational, but also became a ‘trend-setter’ in curriculum theories as others that came later took the crucial element of having achievable objectives in developing curriculum as a foundation (Gosling 2009).

3.3.3 Model III: Curriculum as a process

This model was developed by Lawrence Stenhouse who attempted to address the weaknesses found in the product model (Stenhouse, 1975). The basis of this model was his definition of curriculum as an attempt to communicate the essential principles and features of an educational proposal in such a form that it is open to critical scrutiny and capable of effective translation into practice.

The process approach to the curriculum is said to be more open-ended than the product approach as it focuses on a continuous process the end result of which is perceived in terms of the development of certain desirable potentialities in such skills as critical thinking (Sheehan op.cit). According to the UK Further Education Curriculum Review and Development Unit (cited in Sheehan ibid:674), learners may acquire knowledge as a product, that is, the results of the thinking of others, but the ‘knowing’ is a process which must involve them in developing their own useful strategies. Stenhouse (op.cit) considered curriculum to be an active process which links that which goes on inside the classrooms and that which goes on outside. This active process was supposed to involve continued interaction between students, knowledge and people’s culture, and thus classroom teaching was expected to create realistic situations that encouraged students to think, talk, act and make evaluation.

Fotheringham *et al.* (op.cit) asserts that Stenhouse's definition emerged in contrast to the static nature of curriculum as propounded earlier on by Ralph Tyler, and instead gave priority to interaction and community over content and structure. They elaborate further that in this conception, a broader and holistic understanding of curriculum is presented in association with the content, the recipients and the pedagogic approaches.

This use of curriculum embraces a far more dynamic and process-based perception focusing on the wider teaching and learning environment. This has the potential to offer a variety of student experiences, mediated by the students themselves. (Fotheringham 2012:1)

A rather stronger defence of the model was suggested by Knight (2001) that the planning school curriculum should commence by drawing together the processes, encounters or engagements that lead to effective learning. This implies thoughtful consideration of the different subjects and teaching contexts. He contends that the signatures, pedagogies and environment that support a deep approach to learning in each programme need to be well-articulated. Knight (ibid.) is also in support of processes that encourage student development and progression through intentional scaffolding of learning experiences as well as creation of collaborative learning communities. He qualifies what a good curriculum thus:

“...it is fair to say that good curriculum would plan for learning to take place through communities of practice in which group work and peer evaluation are normal, interpersonal contact is common and networks of engagement are extensive” (Knight ibid:377).

Another criterion of curriculum coherence is that of feedback, where students are informed about their achievements and how to make improvement.

Stenhouse (op.cit) points out that the process model gave learners' voice in the way they learn as it allowed interaction between teachers,

students, the curriculum, and accompanying teaching-learning materials. Students were regarded as participants, and not as objects, with a clear voice regarding the way teaching and learning were being conducted. Thus attention shifted from teaching to learning. The model empowered teachers to select what to teach and all that took place in the classroom was regarded as a way of translating educational ideas into testable practices. The model allows critique contrary to the product model that accepts everything.

Despite the above-mentioned strengths, the model has faced criticism from different angles. (See for example Ornstein & Hunkins, 2009, Thijs & Van den Akker, 2009, Pinar, op.cit., Walker, 1990). They argue that despite its holistic approach and regard to human abilities, there is some difficulty in maintaining this unity as human abilities are usually tendencies and capacities that are closely intertwined at all times. The model is also said to create problems for those who want some greater degree of uniformity in what is taught as it places meaning-making and thinking at its core and treats learners as subjects rather than objects. In this way, when it comes to examining the students as the case is in many instances in developing countries, there is often loss of quality as the examinations standards will override the subject standards. Stenhouse (op.cit:95) points out that this does not imply that the model should not lead students to be examined; rather the examinations must be taken in their stride as they pursue other aspirations, and hence it is rather difficult to get the weak students through an examination using a process model.

Another major weakness is that the model rests upon the quality of teachers, meaning that if they are not of the best quality, students will certainly suffer as they (the teachers) will not manage to provide meaningful translation of what they teach. This will still be the case even if they make use of the so called 'problem-solving' instructional materials which are believed to reduce learning to sets of skills to be acquired (Grundy, 1987). Thus again it may be problematic in many developing countries many of which face serious shortages of qualified teachers.

3.3.4 Model IV: Curriculum as praxis

Curriculum as praxis model focuses on a wider perspective of educational practice in society. Grundy (ibid.) pointed out that the curriculum built on this model does not only involve the presence of well-articulated plans, but also comprises of informed and committed action. It pays attention to continuous social processes often portrayed in human interactions, values and attitudes, and these are put into practice by those involved in education. Grundy (ibid.) as cited in Yek & Penny (2006) asserts that a praxis curriculum should not be seen as simply a set of plans to be implemented, rather should constitute a thorough and active process in which planning, acting and evaluating exist in reciprocal and integrative relationship.

This argument concurs well with ideas of critical pedagogy that encourage production and application (control) of knowledge in learning groups to be done by the group members as they confront real problems together in real contexts through thinking, reflecting and developing positive skills. The outcome of such cooperation is more understanding of their respective pedagogical roles and expectations. And hence Grundy, (op.cit:115) contends that:

Curriculum as praxis is a conceptualization of curriculum derived from an orientation towards human well-being and which makes an explicit commitment to emancipation of the human spirit. It is a process which takes the experiences of both the learner and the teacher and, through dialogue and negotiation, recognises them both as problematic”

In multi-ethnic, racial or socially stratified societies for example, the rights of each member to co-exist is of great value and has to be guaranteed for a better future. As cited in a report of the Diversity and Citizenship Curriculum Review Report of the for the UK National Curriculum, (DfED, 2007), in such contexts, the curriculum will not only need to acknowledge diversity, but also provide resources that will promote collective identities and challenge ideologies and social

constructs that exclude some segments of the society. A curriculum built on praxis model can contribute towards achieving this objective by exposing and reinforcing such values as gender equality, empowerment of the socially vulnerable and emancipation of human kind. Administrators, school heads and classroom teachers shall be expected to practice and portray these values in their day-to-day practices of running schools.

As noted in Carr & Kemmis (1986:190), curriculum as praxis is more of an informed and committed action that originates from committed practitioners. It emphasises practical activities in particular time and place; and thus enable curriculum decision makers to pay attention to the effects of social and historical circumstances. The model also suggests that curriculum should be developed through dynamic interaction of action and reflection, rather than simply setting up plans to be implemented by teachers (Yek & Penney, 2006). Curriculum plans in this model are a result of an active and well-evaluated process. In short, the model exhibits the existence of an even closer relationship between theory and practice.

A closer look at the praxis model shows that it is basically a process model with some modifications to address some aspects that have not been fully dealt with in the process model in particular the societal change and the need for the curriculum to follow suit to address new challenges.

To this end, one can argue that the usefulness of curriculum theories cannot be disputed, although there seems to be a gap between them and actual classroom practice (McCutcheon, 1985). This gap makes many teachers turn not to theories, but to a variety of other sources in order to address the challenges. Perhaps a concluding summary of curriculum models was the one given by Ornstein and Hunkins (quoted in O'Neill op.cit:2) as follows:

... although curriculum development models are technically useful, they often overlook the human aspect such as the personal attitudes, feelings, values involved in curriculum making. Therefore they are not a recipe and should not be a substitute for

using your professional and personal judgement on what is a good approach to enhancing student learning.

Having explored the four curriculum models, this study is more informed by the praxis model as it reflects a more dynamic interaction and reflection for the fact that it centres on informed and committed action. These qualities are not only important, but also helpful in acknowledging the way curriculum is perceived and organised, and how these influence teaching and learning. As a concluding remark, I want to submit that curriculum models portray a conceptualisation of curriculum in a way that leads to understanding the best approaches and limitations of reforms in education, of which this study is about.

3.3.5 Traditional points of view of curriculum

In summary, the models of curriculum discussed revealed two ways of looking at school curriculum - the traditional (product) and the progressive (process) perspective. Believers of the traditional point of view conceptualise curriculum as a collection of subjects prescribed in some rigid syllabuses and teacher guides. In this case, an authority somewhere in the education hierarchy has decided that 'these are the right elements to be offered to the students using criteria known only to them.' Somewhere along the way, new ideas were introduced questioning whether this was effectively meeting the purpose of schooling. As postulated by Shoenberg (2009), Nussbaum (2009), Xin (2004) and Fong (2004), this thinking gave birth to liberal education - a philosophy intended to empower students by exposing them to broad knowledge, transferable skills, values, ethics, and civic engagement. Criticisms were later directed towards liberal education by several thinkers including Joseph Schwab who brought many parts of education into an overall view, instead of limiting them to one specialty or discipline (Hewitt, 2006; Eisner, op.cit). In one his works (Practical Paper 4), Schwab defended his conceptualisation of curriculum this way:

Curriculum is what is successfully conveyed to differing degrees to different students, by committed teachers using appropriate

materials and actions, of legitimated bodies of knowledge, skill, taste, and propensity to act and react, which are chosen for instruction after serious reflection and communal decision by representatives of those involved in the teaching of a specified group of students who are known to the decision-makers. (Schwab (1983:239)

He then went on to suggest that the curriculum field was moribund and had in principle reached a dead end as it was unable to yield results. The argument brought in more changes and especially the emphasis on intellectual training in grammar, literature, the foundation studies (philosophy, history, psychology and sociology), and many other chunks of knowledge that we see today in schools.

In contrast, progressive thinkers argued that a curriculum should not be just a list of school subjects; rather it should include the total learning experiences and reflection of the individual. As Baldacchino (2014) and Quay & Seaman (2013) posit, progressive thinkers such as John Dewey emphasised learning by doing, integration, entrepreneurship, critical thinking, problem solving, group activities, developing social skills, clear understanding and action as the goals of learning. This was in opposition to rote knowledge, tests and examinations.

3.4 Education and Society

In nomadic communities of Africa and Asia, children provide labour in herding cattle, a practice that often attracts rebuke from government authorities that oblige all school-age children to enrol and attend school (Sendalo, 2009; Hodgson, 2001; Semali 1994). In many cases, the parents opt to engage their children in such chores due to the fear that in school, they would not be provided with the skills needed to further the cultural practices and values of their communities. In the Western World, the same logic seems to have been the case when formal education was introduced by the Church in the Middle Ages (Lawson & Silver, 2013, Sturt, 2013, Anderson 2004).

3.4.1 Schooling, curriculum and society

In a discussion about citizenship education in the National Curriculum in England, Dennis Lawton in Lawton (2000:12) reports on the way an advisory group defined citizenship education carefully and precisely by drawing on philosophical ideas dating back to ancient Athens, but essentially focusing on English modern democracy. The group identified three strands to form the framework for school planning namely moral responsibility, community involvement and political literacy. Later, the Citizenship Working Group recommended certain elements to form the core of citizenship teaching in schools, i.e. concepts, values, dispositions, skills, attitudes, knowledge and understanding.

Perhaps the best illustration of ‘why schooling’ in any society can be illustrated by looking at formal education introduced by Western colonial powers in Africa, the details of which appear in Chapter 2 of this thesis. Nwanosike & Onyije (2011) have argued that some societies in pre-colonial Africa (e.g. Ghana, Songhai, Egypt, Morocco and Mali) were highly educated to the extent of having universities before colonial intrusion. When colonialism set in, a version of formal education institutions were introduced to supplant and replace the indigenous ones. The colonial system also stimulated values and practices that were alien to Africa as alleged by Nwanosike & Onyije (ibid:628).

It was an educational system that never grew out of African environment or one that was designed to promote the most rational use of material and social resources. It was not an educational system designed to give young people confidence and pride as members of African Society. But one which sought to instil a sense of difference towards all that was European and capitalist. With few notable exceptions colonial education in Africa especially British enclaves was based on learning to read, write and calculate in the English Language.

The colonial curriculum introduced in Africa also underlined the key purpose of the society that was intended to be carved out of the African indigenous communities. In British colonies for example, history was made

of British themes such as the various wars, evolution of the British constitution, and expansion of the British Empire (Smith, 1965). Shakespeare-authored books were the major literature texts. Indigenous languages were used as media of instruction at the lower classes, but the few African who went further up the system had to master English language to enable them communicate as they served in the lower cadre administrative machinery of the colonial system. Such values were foreign to these societies and hence along the way, incidences of upheavals and struggle for emancipation emerged. No wonder after their political independency, many of these societies 'Africanised' their curricula.

As noted earlier on in this chapter, the purpose of schooling became key agenda of the Progressive Movements in America, and philosophers of the time argued that schooling was for the *preparation of students to live a useful life, just as it was for them to live their immediate lives*. Counter arguments of this approach to education felt that progressivism laid much emphasis on individualism at the expense of community values and hence they proposed that schools should also equip students in such a way as to enable them to play key roles in the social milieu of their communities as citizens, skilled workers and as people who would improve the lives of their communities.

Thus far, one can summarily maintain that the purpose of schooling is both intellectual and social awareness. Schools are geared at inculcating knowledge, attitudes, skills and values that would enable effective participation of education recipients in the affairs of their communities. But also schools do target some vocational-oriented and practical skills that are thought more useful to society. These (intellectual awareness, social awareness, knowledge, values, skills...) are a segment of the larger societal culture and experience. As in ancient Greece, it is expected that acquisition of these would make the recipients better citizens of their individual societies.

3.4.2 Curriculum Development

A concise definition of curriculum development depends on which curriculum model one has in mind as this will underline one's

conceptualisation of what is being developed (Refer to Sections 3.3.1-3.3.4). However, it is generally accepted that developing the school curriculum is a decision-making process that involves the planning of learning opportunities intended to bring about certain changes on the students and the assessment of the extent to which these changes have taken place in the students (Smith, 2000; Kelly, op.cit., Stenhouse, op.cit).

The planning aspect of curriculum development is crucial here as it underlines the point that curriculum decisions should not be carried out in an ad hoc manner. The rationale for planning is based on societal dynamism that leads to not only some elements of knowledge becoming obsolete and the need to be replaced, but also on changes in values as a result of social and economic upheavals. These changes more often do impact on the general public whose reactions may be directed to schools, staff and education authorities. The fact is the general public has a feeling that the education industry plays an important role in addressing social ills. Planning therefore ascertains that the changes carried out on the curriculum are well-managed. Planning will for example assure that the elements of knowledge excluded from the curriculum are indeed no longer valid and those that are brought in are the ones that are valid.

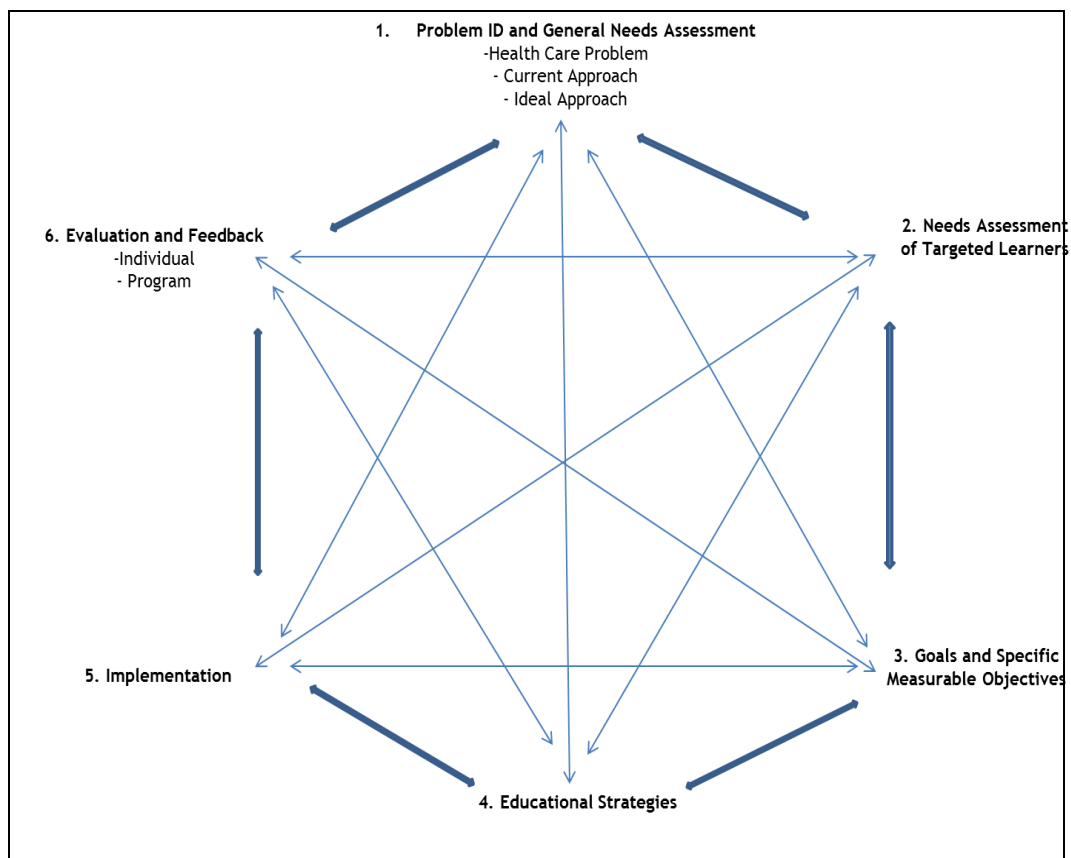
Generally, curriculum has four main elements that are not necessarily mutually exclusive namely objectives, methods, content and evaluation. In the 1970s and beyond, the process of curriculum development was thought to have four stages corresponding to the making of decisions on each of these elements. Today however, and perhaps with new trends in project and programme planning and management, the process involves six stages namely problem identification, needs assessment, identifying objectives, establishing strategies, implementation and feedback. Figure 3.1 adapted from Nicholls and Nicholls, (1976) illustrates these stages.

Problem identification involves establishing exactly what gaps exist in society that need to be redressed through the curriculum to be developed, while needs assessment focuses on the actual gaps in the intended

audience of the curriculum. As regards identifying goals and objectives, the intention is to suggest specific end points and milestones in measurable terms to which the content and methods will be directed, and also to communicate the purpose and suggest methods to be used. The next stage is identifying strategies that are deemed effective in relation to the identified goals.

This is followed by implementation in which the planned activities are realised. Here resources (both physical and human) are suggested to carry the curriculum plan through to the end. Finally an evaluation plan is described which will help to establish attainment level of the identified goals. The loop then closes with the provision of information regarding continued quality improvement. The results of the evaluation and the recommendation for further improvement may imply that something has been amiss, i.e. what was intended by those who developed the curriculum was not what was attained by the students. This brings us to the three types of curriculum discussed earlier - the intended, the implemented, and the attained as presented in Figure 3.2.

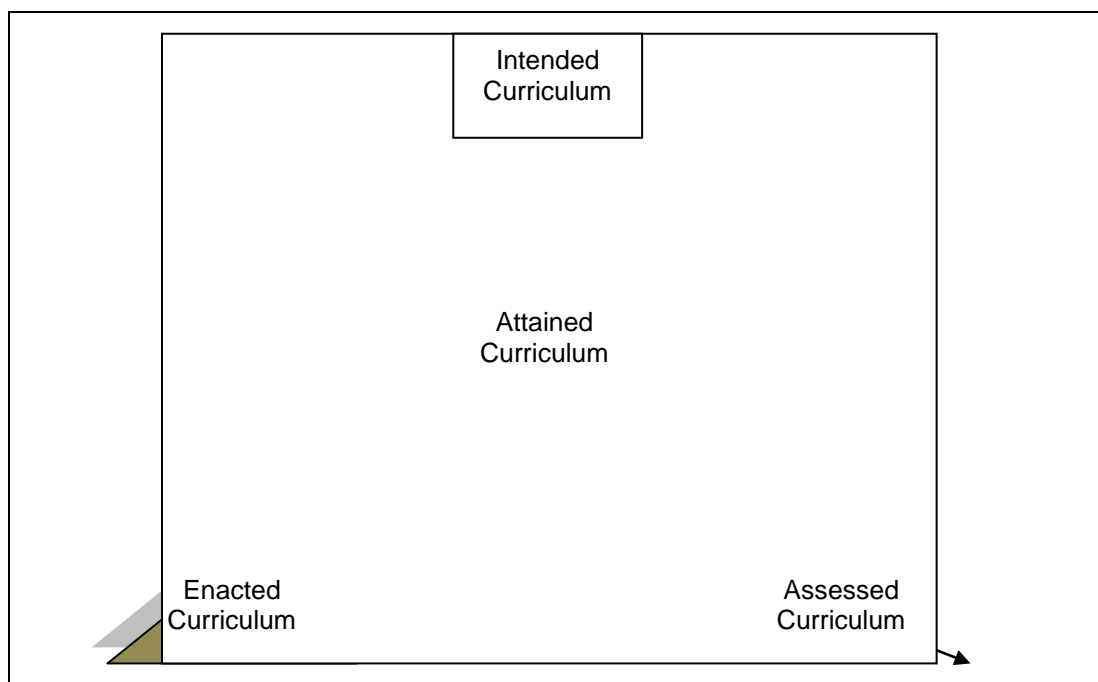
Figure 3.1: The process of curriculum development



Source: Nicholls and Nicholls, 1976

The intended curriculum is that which ought to be taught to students as it is prescribed and captured in syllabuses, circulars and other authoritative documents that specify standards of knowledge and skills to be acquired by the students and of which teachers should strive to reach. In other words, it is the official curriculum comprising of the curriculum goals of the education system and the structures that have been put in place to attain them. The enacted curriculum is what actually gets implemented through classroom instructions by the teachers. It is what students get the chance to learn, as well as how it is delivered to them. This is what makes the bulk of the teachers' daily functions. The point is that certain instructional arrangements may constrain teachers from doing what is in the official documents. Lack of resources, poor quality of teachers, and poor school management are just a few examples. The attained curriculum on the other hand is understood to be the skills, knowledge, and dispositions that students effectively acquire as a result of their schooling. Geen *et al* (2006) and Porter (2004; 2002; 1998; 1995) added a fourth element i.e. the assessed curriculum which they define as what the students are assessed on to establish their achievement levels. These elements are summarised in Figure 3.2.

Figure 3.2: Intended, enacted, assessed and attained curricula



Source: Adapted from Geen *et al* (2006) and Porter (2004)

In the Tanzania curriculum system, students are assessed nationally by the National Examination Council at the end of P4, P7, S2, S4 and S6. In teacher training colleges, it is at the end of their two year certificate or diploma programmes. There are also termly tests of which students should be provided with test results to take home. District education offices also set their own testing policies for their schools such as weekly and monthly intervals.

3.4.3 Curriculum Reform

In the modern world, economic growth and the spread of democracy have raised the value of education and increased the importance of ensuring that all children and adults have access to high quality and effective education. Modern education reforms are increasingly driven by a growing understanding of what works in education and how to go about successfully improving teaching and learning in schools.

Van Rooy (2005), White (2004) and Blake (2003) point out that reforming school curriculum is not a new thing. Developed nations do it e.g. Curriculum for Excellence in Scotland), and developing countries likewise e.g. South Africa in 1994, 1997 and 2005 (Jansen 1997, Kanpol 1995, Carnoy & Samoff 1990); and Tanzania in 2005. The main reason for doing so was basically to address gaps in different aspects of their education systems including quality. Van Roy (op.cit) also points out that any meaningful improvement in education rests with how teachers view the curriculum and their work in the classrooms, and not with governments, academics or curriculum developers. This view is supported by several other authorities like Carl (2005), Donnely (2001), Abd-El-Khalick (2000) and Friedman (1999).

As is commonly known, no society is static, and that change in society necessitates change in social, economic structures in order to match. A rigid and inflexible curriculum in a changing society is therefore not practicable. The opposite is also true—curriculum ought to be dynamic and a vehicle of well-thought and achievable objectives and strategies. This

rationalises the need to continuously revisit what is taught in schools and how in order to address challenges that emerge with the societal change.

However, the view of schools and school curricula being able to solve societal problems has been contested arena. Barker (2011), citing the case of the education system in England has argued that despite great expectations, a sustained large-scale effectiveness campaign has made little difference to the essential gradient of the English society. He claims that the system has been too obsessed with tests and examinations, and thus perpetuating inequality and injustice. This view is shared by a renowned American child psychiatrist (James Comer) who asserts that waiting for schools to solve the problems of America was equal to waiting for a miracle. Basically, Comer's argument was that what went on in American schools (what is being taught, how, and with what resources...) had reproduced social classes and thus created an unhealthy condition for national development. The paradoxical question in developing countries then is what came of the ever continuing curriculum reforms that were carried out after political independency? Were they worthy in terms of financial cost and time? (Refer to Section 3.5 for further discussing on this).

Curriculum reform can make changes to the content and methods, but if it does not relate these changes to the ideology, social, economic and political contexts, it is bound to fail. According to Glatthorn & Jailall (2009) reforms should also involve school heads and teachers – people who translate the content and methods into reality. I contend also that reforms should involve the community or rather families living around the school. Often these are the ones that send their children to the school and with positive expectations at the end of the primary or secondary cycle.

3.5 Curriculum-related Studies from Sub-Saharan Africa

Sub-Saharan Africa has had a history of education and curriculum reviews that span from the early 1960s as the individual countries emerged from Western colonialism. The new political leadership regarded colonial education established by their masters as a tool of domination, and

essentially a transfer of ideas and methods from Western culture to African culture without any alterations (Bude 1983; Ngugi 1981; Nyerere 1968; 1974; Fafunwa & Aisiku 1982). In the end, it was realised that such education could not meet the expectations of the colonised population. As noted by Nwanosike *et al* (op.cit), not only did the colonial powers introduce a new set of education institutions to replace existing (African) ones, but also brought in values that were never African, and hence the effort to change them after gaining independence. Yannick (2013) argues that changing such institutions was not intended to be just a mechanical act, rather a radical transformation of them, if indeed the plan of creating new independent societies were to succeed.

3.5.1 Studies from Sub-Saharan Africa - outside Tanzania

The late 1980s and the early 1990s witnessed yet another considerable change in education in Sub-Saharan Africa mainly as a result of the demise of the Berlin Wall – the major implication of which was intensification of globalisation. As upheld by Okoli (2012), Chisholm & Leyendecker (2008), Okoli (2008), Henry (2008), Siglitz (2002), and Khor (2001), one of the major outcomes of globalisation in the region was commitment to liberal democratic policies that guided all public sectors. In education, these policies legitimated market-oriented reforms in both design and implementation of curriculum.

A lot has been written on this subject, and in this section, I intend to critically review three studies from Ethiopia, Mozambique and Botswana, and a few others from Tanzania thereafter. These were all picked on the basis of their close relationship to my research. A fair critic of the sampled studies however, needs to take into consideration the external and internal factors that impacted on these countries historically, including the different political and economic legacies left behind by the colonial powers i.e. the French, British, Belgians and Portuguese.

There are three reasons for doing this review at this juncture. First was the need to map the field and position my research within the context of

what is already known in the immediate academic and professional community. Here, I will demonstrate existing knowledge in the area, as well as the most important and relevant issues and controversies. Second was the need to justify my research and identify gaps that need to be filled. Third, knowledge on local and related studies would inform my theoretical framework upon which the study is be anchored.

Yishak and Gumbo (2014) report on a study on indigenisation of curriculum planning and implementation in Ethiopia. This was a qualitative multiple case study on the Gamo ethnic group and how they planned and implemented curriculum indigenisation policies. The study involved educational administrators at the central education ministry in Addis Ababa as well as participants from the Gamo tribe. The researchers anchored their study on critical theories of different genres such as multicultural theory, cultural relevant pedagogy, African critical theory and critical pedagogy. The findings indicated that indigenisation of curriculum in respect of the said particular group had indeed been implemented but not as comprehensive as stated in the country's constitution, policies and strategies. The researchers reported that there were still provisions aligned to national standards that militated against ethnic indigenisation of school curriculum.

Curriculum indigenisation was an Ethiopian government policy declared in 1991 as a strategy for implementing a macro policy of ethnic federalism (Yishak & Gumbo, 2014; Yishak & Gumbo, 2012). After the revolution that overthrew the Marxist-Leninist regime in 1991, changes were introduced in basic education regarding the medium of instruction, textbooks and the process of curriculum planning to enhance national unity (Tekeste, 2006). These were however vehemently opposed by some tribal groups who felt they have been subjugated. This opposition grew into movements that later turned into armed conflicts (Kassam, 2002). Indigenisation of the curriculum therefore came as a way of normalising the situation.

Curriculum indigenisation relates to the concept of 'curriculum in context' (Cornbleth, 1990, Kinchloe, 2006) which emphasises that

curriculum content should originate from the culture of the society, enable the recipients to function in their society, and be dictated by the lived lives of the people and their values. The Ethiopian ethnic groups that rose up against ethnic federalism policies felt that the content of the standardised and national-based curriculum did not meet these criteria as it provided them with a non-responsive content.

At the conceptual level, indigenisation of school curriculum has its own fair share of weaknesses. In the first place, the meaning of indigenised curriculum has no clear cut meaning (Stella & Woodhouse 2006). In other words is it the content or the methods that are being indigenised! At the implementation level, and with reference to under-developed communities, there is limited development of indigenous pedagogy as well as sector-wide shortages of professionals. For example the first challenge likely to have faced the implementers of curriculum indigenisation for the Ethiopian tribal groups was 'which language would be used in the textbooks as out of the 80-plus languages of Ethiopia, only a few have an existing orthography. Perhaps the more unclear aspect is the one to do with indigenising school curriculum based on ethnicity. According to Keller & Omwami (2007), Joireman (2003) and Hutchinson & Smith (1996), ethnicity is a debatable and subjective concept that is malleable and situational.

Another relevant study was conducted by Alderuccio (2010) to investigate global and local dynamics of curriculum transformation in Mozambique. The aims of the study were two-fold: (i) to explore the issues and debates behind the change of curriculum in Sub-Saharan Africa with special attention to vocationalisation of primary education, and (ii) to establish the extent to which vocationalisation has effectively promoted quality and addressed disparities. Involved in the study were parents, communities and teachers who provided information through meetings and questionnaires. Classroom teachers also did an exercise to re-organise local interest within each subject of the then existing curriculum.

The findings showed that there was a close relationship between education and economic development, and that in order to strengthen the economy of a country, it was necessary to improve the quality of the education provided. Furthermore, the study established that the two themes (education and economy) converged, presumably as they are all driven by external and supra-national values as suggested by Rosenmund (2000). The final assertion by the researcher was that understanding the historic, economic and cultural changes within a country helps to locate the role of education and mitigate the possible difficulties that the implementation of curriculum transformations is likely to encounter.

Curriculum change and especially towards vocationalisation in Sub-Saharan Africa had been attempted in the region in the 1960 and 1970s mostly under World Bank funding, albeit with catastrophic results (Holsinger & Cowell, 2000; Cowell, 1993; Holsinger, 1993; Lau *et al.*, 1991; Tilak, 1988 and Psacharopoulos & Loxley, 1985). Factors that contributed to lack of success for such policies included the false belief that vocational skills were needed in rural areas in order to enhance economic growth. According to Bude (1983:341), this was ‘education for adaptation’ — an idea drawn from the Phelps Stokes Commission recommendations taken over by the colonial powers especially the British as panacea for job creation and economic improvement in the colonies. Essentially this was practical skills-based education developed for ex-slaves after the American Civil War. The policies were therefore implemented without due consideration of local people’s needs, availability of resources and teachers’ readiness.

Though the people of Mozambique were engaged in a war of independence as other Sub-Saharan African countries were engaged in this futile exercise of vocationalising schools, one would have expected them to learn from the experiences and existing records of others. This was not the case and hence such efforts met with minimal success and hence the researcher’s concluding remark: concludes:

On a more critical note, the emphasis given to ‘practical education’, as a prerequisite for economic development, as

identified in the documents produced by the Mozambican Government, in rural areas is questionable. (Alderuccio, 2010:737).

Improvement in education has been recognised as key in enhancing economic growth in both developed and developing countries as highly educated people possess better production skills, they are more innovative and can contribute to economic development by injecting new ideas and novel technological skills (Holland 2013). However, King, Palmer & Hayman (2005) and Hanushek & Wobmann (2010) insist that education by itself will not generate growth; rather, it is the cognitive skills of the recipients and not merely school attainment that are powerfully related to sustainable economic growth. Educated and skilled people are therefore human capital and thus spending more on education is considered an investment. However, there are a few voices who regard this as simply a myth. Wolf (2002) for instance opines that improved education should not be taken in isolation as the sole factor as there are others that contribute towards improved economy. King *et al* (2005) on the other hand suggest the creation of sustainable job market and expansion of secondary education, developed infrastructure, level of technology, weather, and culture to be considered as other key factors towards sustainable economic development.

The other study worth mentioning was conducted by Tabulawa (1997) in Botswana. This was a pedagogical classroom practice and social context. The aims of the study were (i) to establish the nature of learning and teaching patterns in school, and (ii) to determine how teachers and students made sense of the observed patterns. Basically it was about curriculum practicalities; and here-under the researcher describes what he intended to do:

To determine the implications the teachers' and students' understandings of the observed patterns might have for pedagogical change, that is, I was to extrapolate the extent to which their understandings, as guides to action, would possibly facilitate or hinder a shift from the current teacher-dominated

pedagogical practices to the ones advocated in Education for Kagisano
(Tabulawa1997:199).

Briefly Kagisano is a Tswana vernacular word meaning ‘social harmony’ and as an education policy, it intended to make education available to a much wider section of the population so as to break away from the pre-independence education system inherited from the country’s colonial past. The policy was built on four major principles namely democracy, development, self-reliance and social justice.

The researcher utilised ethnographic approach that involved him being a semi-participant in classroom observation sessions for 8 weeks and administering questionnaires to collect views on the actual classroom teaching and learning process. In total he conducted 46 hours of classroom observation in aspects like physical conditions, management and control techniques, interaction between students and between teachers and students, and the use of gestures and other non-verbal communication strategies. The study involved 397 male and 383 female students and 7 teachers. In the report that I managed to access, the researcher concluded that there was very little student-student and student-teacher interaction. He also noted that teaching and learning were mostly teacher-centred. Furthermore, teachers were regarded as knowledge providers and students as knowledge-recipients.

This was an interesting study in that the major part of data collection for the studied phenomenon (actual classroom implementation) was carried out using an appropriate methodology i.e. classroom observation. Classrooms are complex social and cultural settings where intellectual activities are socially mediated (Manning & Butcher 2013; Jones & Jones, 2013; Davis, *et al.* (2012). This means that activities and expressive behaviour going on in there are powerful contexts that need to be understood for purposes of improving students’ learning. This study therefore provided a huge contribution towards that end.

As pointed out by Hennik *et al.* (2011), Torrance (2010) and Kawuchi (2005), social behaviours can be meaningfully assessed, and understood only through observation.

The study findings were made even more reliable given the length of time spent (i.e. 46 hours), as well as the use of other data collection methods such as questionnaires and interviews. Unfortunately, in the report the researcher only presented findings from the observations leaving out those that he collected from interviews and questionnaires. No reason has been provided, and one is left to guess what came of these data. In so doing, he has denied interested parties some of the information that may have been of good use. Furthermore, as the study was conducted when the *Education for Kagera* policy had been in use for approximately two decades, one can easily note that the findings were not completely different to what had already been established by other researchers such as Fuller & Synder (1991), Vanqa (1989), and Prophet & Rowel (1993).

3.5.2 Studies from Tanzania

A few years after the introduction of TC2005, academicians and professionals with interest in education began questioning its worthiness. In a research report to contribute to the Association for Development Education in Africa (ADEA), Mosha (2012) reported on a case study conducted in four districts in Tanzania, the purpose of which was to uncover the extent to which the competency-based ethos of TC2005 was communicated in the textbooks. Using purposive sampling, the researcher picked two high performing and two low performing schools in each of the participating districts as study samples. The findings revealed that TC2005 changed the entire primary school curricula from the traditional content-based to competency-based in order to make it more relevant and market oriented. Nevertheless, the new curriculum was noted to be overloaded and above the level of the learners in some subjects. A critical review of the targeted competences lacked specificity especially in Information technology, Mathematics and English. Also many of the syllabi reviewed did not contain outcome statements with measurable definitions of knowledge, skills and behaviour. It was also evident from the study that

textbook authors were not clear on the adopted paradigm shift, and hence could not translate the concepts into appropriate content. Further, no training was provided to the authors. Teachers were also reluctant to teach using competency-based approaches claiming that the approach was too taxing as it required long periods of lesson preparation.

Strong as these findings may sound, the study had a rather narrow focus for such a wider subject. The researcher concentrated only on textbooks whereas school curriculum goes beyond what is contained in books. One can thus suggest that he fell into the trap of assuming a sacrosanct position of the textbook in Tanzania schools and classrooms and thus marginalising the role of the curriculum. As pointed out by Bowe *et al* (1992), textbooks provide just one feature in the context of producing texts as part of the education-cum curriculum policy production. The texts produced as subject content for various grades merely reflect how the curriculum policy has been interpreted by the authors, and should be seen in a dynamic and symbiotic relationship with the contexts of influence and practice. Furthermore, the researcher picked a very small sample of textbooks i.e. two subjects taught in grades 4 to 7 whereas TC2005 covered all primary and secondary school subjects as well as those offered in teachers' colleges. The study thus over-looked the competencies and experiences meant to be acquired by the learners in these levels. He has not provided reasons for this decision.

Another study was conducted by Eskola (2009) on the teaching of Mathematics in Tanzania teachers' colleges, after which she compared the results with the situation in Finland. The reader is hereby reminded that TC2005 covered the teacher training curriculum as well. The data collection exercise was carried out in 2008 when TC2005 had been in use for only four years. The purpose of this research was to find out and describe how mathematics teachers were educated in both countries. The researcher collected data from private secondary schools by observing a single Mathematics lesson in a private secondary school through a focus group discussion, and another at an English-medium primary school. At

the latter, she carried out a 10-minute discussion with the whole class. He also visited one of the local universities.

The findings indicated that teachers and the majority of students felt that the Mathematics curriculum was overloaded and thus making the time allocated too short. This was compounded by the lack of books and other learning materials; making it difficult to learn all the topics prescribed in the syllabus. The researcher also found out that Mathematics topics were quite challenging and that they have incorporated the requisite knowledge and skills. In the teaching process, the researcher reported that teachers made use of constructivist and behaviourist approaches, citing the latter in situations such as introducing new topics through lectures and use of the chalkboard. Occasionally, discussion sessions were conducted, making the lessons weigh more on socio-constructivist side. Eskola (op.cit.) concludes that when making changes in school curriculum, it is important to consider required resources as well as to make sure that teachers are made aware of the changes in order to comply with them.

Eskola's work was a good case study in that it investigated an on-going phenomenon and also one of the problematic subjects in the country (Sugiyama, 2005; Kitta, 2004; Kitta *et al.*, 2004, Osaki, 4004a; Osaki, 2004b), but also the mother of scientific knowledge (Chiu, 2007). The findings therefore were a worthy contribution to public awareness towards solving the problem of poor performance of Mathematics in country.

On the other hand, the study has debatable methodological issues. The researcher attests that apart from being a case study, her research was also ethnographic — meant to understand and analytically describe society and people under investigation (Eskola, 2005 pii). Generally, studies of this nature oblige the researchers to carry out observation in locations for longer periods to enable them to understand the meaning of events from their point of view (Neyland, 2008; Bryant, & Charmaz, 2007; Hobbs, 2006). The researcher visited the two secondary schools briefly, and in the primary school, he observed a class for only 10 minutes.

Furthermore, cultural difference between the researcher and the phenomenon researched also may also limit or even bias the findings. In this case the researcher travelled from Scandinavia to Tanzania briefly to carry out a fieldwork in partial fulfilment of her Master of Science degree. I presume this was too short a time to enable her to understand fully the cultural complexities of Tanzania. At the University where she carried out observation for a slightly longer time, she admits: “Unfortunately I was not able to attend lectures offered by the Faculty ... because all the courses related to education were offered next semester...” In other words she did not witness how teachers were trained to become secondary school teachers.

Interest on TC2005 was also shown by non-government institutions including HakiElimu, a local non-profit civil society organization. The society in collaboration with the University of Dar es Salaam carried out a study titled ‘Who decides what our children learn?’ The researchers sought views of teachers, students and other stakeholders regarding the quality of curriculum content and implementation. They also assessed the quality of the curriculum materials. Through mixed methodological approaches, the researchers captured a wide spectrum of participants including teachers, students, district education administrators and parents. A total of 12 primary and 12 secondary schools picked from 6 administrative districts of the country participated in the study.

The findings suggested that the majority of teachers had a clear understanding of the national educational objectives as they were informed of them in teacher training in colleges. On the curriculum development processes, they were concerned that too many changes were being made on the curriculum within a relatively short period of time, and that the process excluded key stakeholders. On effectiveness of the curriculum, participants felt that it did not produce learners who were self reliant and independent in thinking compared to those of the 1980s and 1990s. Basically, school leavers considered the curriculum as geared towards ‘white collar’ jobs. Education officers in particular cited content that was not relevant to the context of students’ communities. On their

part, students claimed that they were learning things that were difficult to put into use, and related this to increased joblessness in the country. They also felt that they were learning things that did not match with the scientific and technological development taking place in the world especially for the fact that schools lacked equipment and materials to enable science and technology concept to be taught in the right way. "How can you learn about using computers without seeing them?" wondered another student.

District-level officials complained of too frequent curriculum changes that were carried out in haste such that before one change has been understood by the teacher, another one comes long. *"I think we have been changing our curriculum so often that we confuse our teachers,"* a participant complained. Lack of resources to implement the changes also featured in the district officials opinions. One was quoted saying that two years after the introduction of the curriculum, there has been no change in textbooks and other teaching and learning materials to reflect the changes in the curriculum. *"So how do you expect teachers to teach... ? New curriculum but old books, how can this be?"*

They also felt that the Government was promulgating curricula without consulting key stakeholders. Thus changes were simply communicated from the top without proper explanation of the reasons for the changes. Teachers felt themselves as implementers of curriculum changes that they did not take part in. "... they just tell us to implement;" a head teacher said. Another notable observation that was made by participants regarding curriculum changes was on the lack of training among teachers. Teachers observed that when curriculum changes are made, no training is organised for them to help understand the changes they are expected to implement.

On the use of multiple rather than single textbooks as was the case in the 1970s and 1980s, the majority of teachers preferred the use of single and similar titles for all schools. They felt that many textbooks confused the learners and teachers, and that the uniform national examination made it necessary for uniform teaching. A few of them thought the system was

good as it allowed flexibility as well as to get different meanings and definitions when explaining a concept.

HakiElimu's study was timely in that it came at a time when the general public had witnessed mass failure of candidates in the three National 'O' Level Examinations consecutively from 2009 as presented hereunder:

Table 3.2: Performance of school candidates by divisions, 2010 - 2011			
Pass levels	Year		
	2009	2010	2011
Division 1 (highest)	1.78	1.53	1.09
Division 2	4.21	2.83	2.41
Division 3	11.2	7.14	6.84
Division 4 (lowest)	52.61	38.9	43.60
Division 0 (total failure)	26.46	49.60	48.48

Source: URT/Ministry of Education and Vocational Training 2012

The general public was therefore looking for answers for this poor performance as politicians attempted to provide 'political' reasons that satisfied nobody (HakiElimu 2013, Guardian Newspaper 2013). In terms of the methodological approach, HakiElimu's study came out strongly with mixed methods of data and sample selection of location and participants that were likely to provide required answers for the research questions.

These notwithstanding, there seems to be a conceptual limitation regarding the main subject of the study. Education quality (the focus of this study) is a complex subject that cannot be addressed by a single study based simply on those responsible for curriculum decision making (the study is titled 'Who decides what our children learn?'). According to UNICEF (2000:5), characteristics of quality education include (i) health and well-nourished learners who are also supported by their families and communities, (ii) safe learning environment, (iii) relevant curricula and materials (iv) knowledge of cross-cutting issues, (v) child-centred teaching in well-managed classes and schools, (vi) fair assessment that facilitates learning and reduces disparities, (vii) community participation, and (viii) outcomes that portray knowledge, skills and attitudes linked to national goals. These factors affirm the argument that education quality cannot

simply be divorced from political, cultural and economic contexts of a country.

Some aspects of the mixed methodology used in the study can also be called into question. Two important characteristics and advantages of qualitative data are flexibility and depth. In this study the researchers ended up with both qualitative and quantitative data for analysis. There are indications that some of the qualitative data had to be quantified, and thus made to lose their flexibility and depth as codes for qualitative data are multidimensional whereas those for quantitative are one-dimensional and fixed (Driscoll *et al.*, 2007; Bazeley, 2004). Besides the randomisation procedure in picking the districts, a sample of 6 districts out of the statistical universe of 170 districts (that make Tanzania) was inadequate and likely to lead to a sampling error and thus questionable findings. According to DePaulo (2000), the problem of sampling increases as the statistical universe gets larger.

3.6 Chapter Summary

To conclude, school curricula, the process involved in developing them, and the models that portray different ways of thinking about them have been the main themes of this chapter. The intention was to highlight and present them as a way of locating curriculum development and reform in Tanzania. From time immemorial, great thinkers have conceptualised curriculum in such a way as to serve the interests of their communities and larger societies. The powerful in ancient societies (e.g. philosophers) had led the way in selecting what to teach the young generation of their time in order to make them ‘useful’ citizens. The modern Western World followed suit with the polity making decisions on content and delivery, leaving teachers as passive beings supposed to follow what has been prescribed. Progressive ideas came forth with a different way of looking at curriculum emphasising societal needs more than individualistic tendencies. Reforms in curriculum are still going on today, and one would like to find out the causes, the approaches and the impact. In this chapter, I have also highlighted four models of conceptualising curriculum and described how they affected curriculum development and practice.

Thereafter, I discussed the relationship between curriculum and society and showed why societies reform their curricula. The main reason is to address needs of the society. The next chapter will discuss policy processes.

CHAPTER FOUR

PUBLIC POLICY MAKING AND POLICY SOCIOLOGY

4.1 Introduction

This thesis is about Tanzania's 'official' school curriculum. According to Levin (2007), this is a curriculum developed by the Government or other sanctioned authorities for standard use in schools across a state, province, or country. By this definition, an official curriculum is a public policy as would be elaborated in Section 4.3.2. I begin the chapter by exploring the concepts of public policy and policy making before presenting a sample of models to portray the various ways of assuming what policies are. Secondly, I analyse policy sociology as a tool of policy analysis. I also touch on society, politics and education and how they are related before moving on to the politics of curriculum.

4.2 Public Policy: An Overview

Colebatch (2002:2) asserts that the concept of policy is central in order to understand how people are governed, but the term implies something wider than simply what governments intend to do. Thus the term does not have a clear and unambiguous definition. It may apply to some broad orientation, or normal practice, specific commitment or statements of values.

4.2.1 Definition

Ball (1993) describes public policies as 'things'; but also as 'processes' and 'outcomes'. He defines them as representations encoded in complex ways (via struggles, compromises, authoritative public interpretations and reinterpretations) and decoded in complex ways (via actors' interpretations and meanings in relation to their history, experiences, skills, resources and context). Ball's definition hints on how public policies are made and how they are likely to lack homogeneity of interpretation due to variations in the social and cultural contexts where they are meant to be implemented. Haddad (1995:18) defines public policies in more functional terms as follows:

Explicit or implicit single decision or group of decisions which may set out directives for guiding future decisions, initiate or retard action, or guide implementation of previous decisions.

Haddad (ibid.) also points out that policies differ in scope, complexity, decision environment, range of choices, and decision criteria. There are issue specific policies which are usually short-term decisions involving day-to-day management or a particular issue. There are also programme policies that deal with the design of programmes, multi-programme policies and strategic large-scale policies. Hayes (2009) on the other hand defines public policy as a course of action adopted and pursued by a government. It is a purposive and consistent course of action produced as a response to a perceived problem of a constituency, formulated by a specific political process, and adopted, implemented, and enforced by a public agency. On his part, Ball (1990) suggests that a public policy has to do with authoritative allocation of values; and thus power and control are important elements in discussing policy issues. He further argues that policies portray operational statements of values; and that they prescribe intent and project images of an ideal society.

Attention in the above definitions should however be paid to five characteristics within public policies for clarification purposes, namely *purpose, consistency, responsiveness, process* and *adoption*. The quality of having *purpose* (or *intent*) implies that a public policy ought to have a pre-determined target to be attained in the long run. *Consistence* on the other hand indicates that a public policy needs to have elements of regularity or steadiness. Public policies are also expected to be responsive. The quality that requires policy to respond to a problem of a constituency means, that is there are some people with stake in the policy who are not happy with things on the ground and they need to be satisfied. The idea that policies are formulated by a specific *political process* implies that a certain legitimate body is expected to respond to the problems that have been identified. Finally, the *adoption* and enforcement characteristic requires that the process culminates in positive action. But above all, there are issues to do with values although the definition does not define whose values should be portrayed in policies. This variation in defining policy as a

concept suggests different ways of describing how policies are made. This is the gist of the discussion in Section 4.2.2.

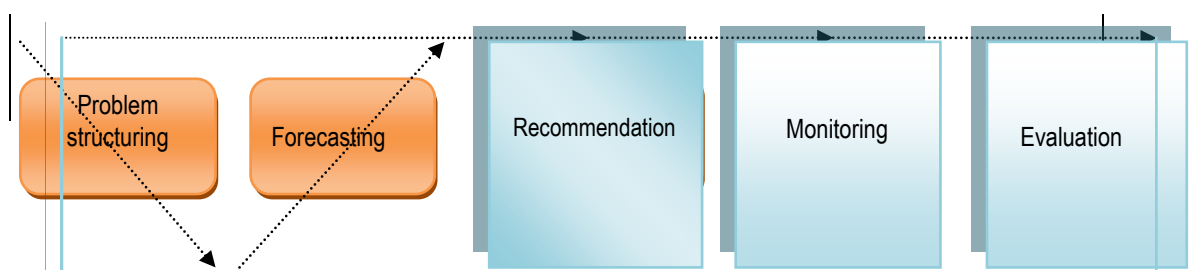
4.2.2 Policy Making: Assumptions and Models

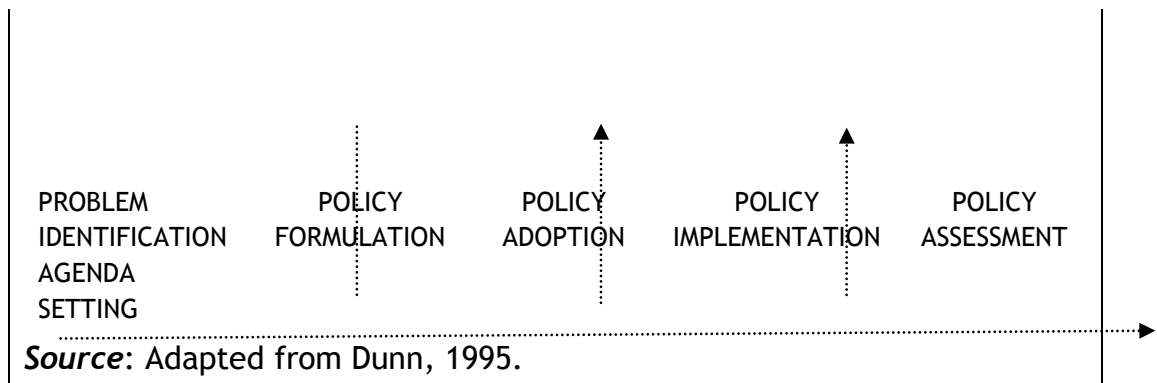
Assumptions

Wu *et al* (2010) states that the making of public policies is central to the world of public management as it legitimizes the presence of managers as well as their resource needs, but the policy process is rife with irrationality, inconsistencies, and lack of coordination. The process is said to be dynamic, complex, and interactive, and is carried out in order to identify problems. These can then be addressed through alternative policies or through reforming the existing policies (Dunn, 1995). Parson (1995:78) points out that the process of policy making is cyclic and made up of several stages although it is still debatable as to how many stages are involved.

In this study, I have adopted Dunn's definition (Dunn *ibid*:17) of the policy process because it appears to be more comprehensive than others. He describes policy making as a political process incorporating a series of inter-dependant phases arrayed through time, agenda-setting, policy formulation, policy adoption, policy implementation and policy assessment. Modern societies are complex entities whose ways of existence contribute to equally complex problems that call for different responses at different levels of each society's social structure. Dunn (*ibid*) also relates policy making to policy analysis which he describes as a process of creating, critically assessing and communicating policy-relevant knowledge within one or more phases of the policy making process. The illustration (Figure 4.1) summarises Dunn's thinking, and shows the cyclic and continuous nature of the process, with the final stage leading back to agenda-setting.

Figure 4.1: Public policy making stages





Agenda setting involves the identification of the social problem to be addressed by the policy and attempting to make it a political agenda, or even keeping it off the agenda. Parson (1995) argues that this stage is the genesis of the policy and it involves the recognition of an event or issue and how it can be upgraded to a problem. He asserts that what counts as a problem and how it is defined depends on the way policymakers seek to address an issue or an event. He cites Jones (1971) who posited that ‘whosoever initially identifies a social problem, shapes the initial terms in which it will be debated. An interesting example is then provided of people sleeping on the streets as the *issue* at hand, homelessness as *the problem*, and more housing as the gist of the *policy* to address the problem. This distinction is crucial in that it enables the issue to be interpreted appropriately and consequently leading to an effective policy, or otherwise. For instance, if people sleeping on the streets are considered vagrants, then the policy response may be framed in terms of law enforcement; that is more police officers on the streets to arrest the culprits and rid the streets of the menace.

This approach negates the old belief that some of the social problems are so obvious that the facts will be the best evidence to enable the creation of an appropriate policy option. Parson (op.cit) counters this assertion by arguing that facts need interpretation as they do not speak for themselves. Moreover, facts do not always make an issue or event a public problem. In normal cases, the political environment, different interest groups such as community based organisations, non-profit organisations, the general public and the media would contribute towards this stage.

Putting the problem in the political agenda is the first critical step in the policymaking process. To get onto the agenda, problems must come to policymakers' attention. Some problems are too invisible to make way into political agenda, while others such as healthcare, are already highly visible, because they affect everybody in society. Dunn (op.cit:16) points out that putting a problem into the agenda is the point of discovering hidden assumptions, making diagnosis of their causes, mapping their possible objectives, synthesising conflicting views, and designing new policy options.

The World Health Organisation (undated, p3) has summarised the main tasks at this stage as follows:

Here it is acknowledged that public problems will only reach the political agenda if they are converted into political 'issues'. This usually occurs when an interest group demands government action on a problem, or when there is public disagreement over ways in which a problem should be addressed.

The next stage is policy formation or formulating policy proposals whereby policies are created or changed within the social and political context. The activities to be carried out here involve getting knowledge on what may occur in the future as a result of adopting each policy option, estimating the consequences, specifying constraints and estimating the feasibility of each option. Again as in agenda setting, the proposed policy options have to bear in mind the existing political channels, policy institutions, different stakeholders, the state bureaucratic structures, and judicial institutions and the executive.

Policy adoption (the next stage) is the legitimisation point of the policy. At this level, the policy is brought into force through legal decree by a government minister, the parliament or the cabinet. This is done by issuing public statements, executive orders, budgets, laws and appropriations, rules and regulations, and / or decisions and interpretations that have the effect of setting policy directions. This is necessary to enable execution of the policy or policy implementation. This includes the actions and

mechanisms whereby policies are brought into practice. Thus what is written in the legislation or policy document is translated into a reality. Burke *et al* (2012:22) describe this stage in both simple and complex terms. In simple terms, they see implementation as the carrying out of a plan for doing something, an activity that focuses on putting the plan into operation; - the *How*, rather than the *What*. In complex terms, they refer to it as:

... a purposeful set of activities undertaken to incorporate the distinct components of that programme into a service or community setting. Similarly, it can relate to policy, which involves a series of activities undertaken by government and its institutions to achieve the goals and objectives articulated in policy statements (Burke et.al.,op.cit.).

It is thus a stage at which the content of the policy, and its impact on those affected, may be modified substantially, or even negated.

The option of being negated brings us to the controversies inherent in policy implementation such that it is a fallacy to conceptualise it as a simple matter as it sometimes sounds. McLaughlin (1987) describes this policy making stage as featuring complexities, intractability, and inevitability. Other studies have proved it to be so and thus overriding social science theories including Marx Weber's thinking on hierarchical authority and bureaucratic control (See Kotter, 2007; Lindquist, 2006; Robichau *et al.*, 2009, and Williams, 2004). The tendency substantiated is that more often implementers do not adhere to what they have been instructed to do, instead they would respond idiosyncratically, and at times with resistance; and consequently failure to attain intended goals. Quoting Pressman & Wildavsky (1973, 1984), McLaughlin, (op.cit:162.) declares that implementation has a domineering effect on outcomes and consequences of even the best planned, best supported, and most promising policy initiatives as in the end, they would all depend on what happens as individuals in the policy system to interpret what has been provided.

... it is incredibly hard to make something happen, most especially across layers of government and institutions.... because social problems tend to be thorny.... because policymakers can't mandate what matters. We have learned that policy success depends critically on two broad factors: local capacity and will. Capacity, admittedly a difficult issue, is something that policy can address. Training ... dollars can be provided. Consultants can be engaged... But will, or the attitudes, motivation, and beliefs ... are less amenable to policy intervention.

Policy evaluation, the next stage in the policy making process implies all the activities carried out by a range of state and societal actors to determine how a policy fared in practice and to estimate how it is likely to perform in future (Wu, *et al.*, op.cit). It is the final stage in the policy-making process, and ideally it involves monitoring, analysis, criticism and assessment of existing or proposed policies. It is thus an appraisal of the policy content, implementation and effects.

Colebatch (op.cit:54) argues that the common sense of evaluation is clear: “if policy is concerned with achieving goals, then it is only sensible to check whether or not these have been attained.” So it can be argued that evaluation enable policy makers to know the extent to which they have been able to achieve their objectives and thereafter act accordingly. As suggested by Heider (2010), effective policy evaluation rests on three pillars – (i) independence of the evaluating individuals or institutions, (ii) their credibility as suggested by their competency, transparency, impartiality, and (iii) utility i.e. the need to produce results that would be accessible, usable and influential to policymakers to move towards positive change.

Just like the other stages of policy making, evaluation is said to be problematic. Jones (op.cit) categorises policy evaluation problems into three – *conceptual*, *natural* and *practical*. Conceptual or technical problems are often caused by a multitude of interacting forces and actors

that get involved in the policy process. As such it becomes difficult to predict consequences. They can also be caused by measurement complexities especially in social policies that are aimed at changing values. Natural problems are often caused by modification of objectives in the life span of the policy. In the end, the initial policy objectives may not be the appropriate yardstick to judge the progress of the policy. Moreover, policies are often influenced by coalitions, networks and alliances with different contributions, and as such one cannot easily account in quantitative or qualitative terms the extent to which each of these institutions has contributed to the attainment of the prescribed policy objectives. Practical policy evaluation problems may be caused by a variety of things like less physical and fiscal resources, and poor quality of staffing.

In critical terms, evaluation should be considered both as a technical and a political exercise (Wu *et al.*, op.cit:83) as its purpose may not only reveal the effects of the policy, but the exercise itself may be a political strategy to conceal a situation that might otherwise belittle those in power. They elaborated:

It is also possible for managers to design the terms of evaluation in such a way as to lead to preferred conclusions regarding the merits and demerits of particular policy options. Similarly, actors outside government may make policy evaluations with the intention of criticising government actions in order to gain partisan political advantage or to reinforce their own ideological preference for specific kinds of policy interventions.

In summary, two things need to be mentioned in relation to policy making. One is the impact of societal dynamism on public policy making to address new problems that surfaced as a result, and two is the close affinity between policy making and planning.

Today the policy making process has increasingly focused on the wider goals and objectives which are called upon to be SMART (*specific*,

measurable, attainable, realistic and timely). Furthermore, advancement in technology and the media have made policy and policy making even more intricate, and in the process creating new challenges that call for the evolving of new policies to address modern societal problems. The point is that with the passage of time, policy making has not been made easier; indeed it has been even more complex as described by Ball (2006:45)

There is ad hocery, negotiation and serendipity within the state and formulation process. There is a difference between agenda control and ideological politics and the policy influence processes and text production within the state. These disagreements and their effects result in lack of clarity, confusion and doubt.

As for the affinity between policy making and planning, Haddad (1995) asserts that policy making is the first step in any planning cycle and planners must appreciate the dynamics of policy formulation before they can design effective implementation and evaluation procedures for any programme. In public policy making, numerous individuals and interest groups compete and collaborate to influence policymakers to act in a particular way. These groups enable the use of different strategies and tools to attain intended goals. Nevertheless, in most scenarios, it is the state or its representative institutions that would dictate terms when it comes to which public policy option should be adopted to address the problems identified.

Models

The plethora of definitions of policy as portrayed her-above and the general thinking about policy making imply the existence of variations in the way policy is conceptualised. Thus there exists several models of policy making but in general the following are the major ones as covered in works by Howlett *et al.*, (2009), Lindquist (2006), Williams (2004) and Birkland, (2004), to name but a few.

Institutional Model: This is the traditional, classical approach that focuses on the structures, organization, duties and functions of governmental

institutions with policies just described but not analysed. However this model is said to be strong in portraying the lines of accountability and addressing basic questions regarding what and who is doing what (Hallsworth *et al.* 2011).

Systems Model: This model looks at policy making as a process of taking inputs from the political environment and considering what the outputs and feedback would be. That is the interaction between human groups and outside actors and the outcomes of its decision-making. The model helps in counteracting the tendency to analyze political systems as if they were self-contained. This is possible at the local level, but quite difficult at national level programmes.

Pluralist Model: Also known as group model, the pluralist model considers policy to be the result of influence of different groups. At the local level, there is less emphasis on groups, but influential individuals are perceived as diverse, conflicting and different from one issue to another. Conflict and competition have prominent roles in this model. The pluralist model is especially helpful in emphasizing the diversity of participants and interests, the likelihood of conflict and the importance of willingness to work in resolving conflicts.

Elite Model: This model recognizes that the majority of the people are excluded in policy making, and that the elites make almost all policy decisions. They assume that they are representing the interests of stakeholders while the truth is that they are representing their own interests. They may differ in some issues but basically they share a fundamental consensus. The elite model portrays inequalities among participants in policy making. Sometimes the differences are caused by apathy on the part of the masses or manipulation by elites.

Process Model: According to Sutton (1999), this model makes generalization of policy making steps. It focuses more on what happens, when and how than on who is taking part and with what outcomes. Process

models are widely used in providing policy education because they can help in pointing out both the starting point as well the end point.

Rational Model: This model looks at policy making as a process of efficient decision making that includes clarifying goals, identifying alternatives, predicting consequences, comparing the anticipated consequences, and selecting the alternative that maximizes goal attainment. However, it is criticised for being unrealistic in terms of information and analytical requirements and that it does not clearly address contexts in which goals are not clear. It treats decision making as an intellectual process rather than a political one.

Incremental Model: This model was formulated to address gaps in the rational model. It takes decision makers to be more likely to move away from problems than toward the set goals. It considers only a few alternatives especially those that do not differ much from the status quo. It also considers only short-range consequences for each alternative and to pick solutions that policy makers can agree on. Adjustments are continually made if solutions remain unacceptable. The following table summarises these policy making models as portrayed in Howlett *et al.*, (2009); Lindquist, (2006); Williams (2004); Birkland, (2004); Haddad 1995, and Dye 1978.

Table 4.1: Summary of policy making models

Model	Focus	Use	Limitations
Institutional	Structures, organisation and functions	Portrays lines of accountability and thus easier to know who is doing what	Policies are just described not analysed
Systems	Inputs from environment, outputs and feedback	Helpful in making analysis of political systems as self-contained, especially at local level	Difficult to analyse national-wide programmes.
Pluralist	Power lies with	Describes the central role	May overstate the group role and

	groups	of groups; allows for incrementalism.	understate the role of public officials and institutions; may overlook environmental factors
Elite	Power lies with the elites	Describes the role of leaders; reveals hidden power brokers who influence public policy	May overstate the role of elites; understate the role groups and the multidimensional nature of policy making; can be hard to identify the elites over time
Process	The regular occurring steps in the policy making process	Describes the process or system, the multiple decision points, fragmentation of power.	May overlook changes in the social, political environment; content of the process may be overlooked.
Rational	The policy making process	Describes a rational, "scientific" decision making process	May be unrealistic; exaggerate the time, resources and information available to the decision maker may not take group or elite power into account
Incremental	How decisions are made	Highlights the manner in which officials make decisions.	May overlook the role of elites, systematic stages in the process, and possibility of innovative policy changes.

Source: Adapted from Howlett *et al.*, (2009), Lindquist (2006), Williams (2004) and Birkland, (2004).

4.3 Policy Sociology

Unlike professional and critical sociology, policy sociology crosses the boundaries of professionalism to speak to the public with a view to enable them, as clientele, to define their goals to be attained in the process (Burawoy, 2005). Policy sociology provides instrumental knowledge that can be used to solve or help a specific case in the social world. Burawoy (ibid.) regards policy sociology as a second wave (the first being professional sociology) which focused on control and social order. By shedding away its moral reform element, it provided technical tools and rationale for policy sociology and re-discovered the civil society and its public sphere. Ozga (1987) characterizes policy sociology as having roots in the social science, informed by history and drawing on qualitative and illuminative techniques. In a similar note, Ball, (1990) stresses that in order for one to correctly conceptualize policy making, it is important to

consider the social tradition as well the history of the society. The historical past is crucial because it helps to clarify the basic structural changes that have shaped the modern world. These changes are responsible for creating the framework within which politics take place. Current authorities in policy sociology literature include Cox (1980); Ozga (1987 & 2000); Ball (1990); Gale (2001) and Whitty 2002).

4.3.1 Policy sociology as a tool of policy analysis

In recent years, policy sociology has been a popular tool for analysing educational policies. For instance, while tracing the ideologies that influenced education in the 19th century in the UK, Ball (1990) moves from the public educators who advocated democracy education to industrialists who defined education in terms of future adult duties, and then over to humanists who considered education for the purpose of specialized skills. In the 20th Century, the public educators' ideas seem to have been largely adopted, although with a heavy overtone of the old humanists' principles especially in the curriculum (Ball (op.cit)).

Similarly, reporting on a UK youth project, Ozga (op.cit) traced change, convergence and divergence in UK education and its impact on youth transitions, and how the interaction of global agenda has driven the country's education policies. She argues that these policies have impacted on the labour market structure as well as on family structures and gender identities. She further argues that it is due to this impact that there have been considerable changes in UK education policies to address modernisation and other global problems. These changes seem to be connected to considerable global education policy convergence. As the UK's economy is under the control of market forces, Ozga (ibid.) feels that the current education policies portray competitiveness and the discourse of the market.

Gale (2001) criticises policy sociology as a research tool because of its reflexivity and self-appraisal. He contends that policy sociology harbours a tendency of pondering on matters related to its own research activity. To address this, he proposes three methodological approaches to be used in

exploring and explaining matters of policy, each generating its own particular view of the (policy) issues worth looking for, their location and how to search for them. Drawing on research into the production of Australian higher education policy during the late 1980s and early 1990s, Gale refers to these approaches as policy historiography, policy genealogy and policy archaeology. Without claiming absolute distinctions between their interests, he couples policy historiography with the substantive issues of policy at particular hegemonic moments, policy genealogy with social actors' engagement with policy, and policy archaeology with conditions that regulate policy formations.

Troyna (1994:70) on the other hand, regards policy sociology as limited in its theoretical, disciplinary and strategic concerns on the ground such that it turns a blind eye to issues arising from cognate theoretical and disciplinary sources which have the potential to illuminate the policy process. Specifically, he feels that it ignores conceptualisation and empirical research which feature in feminist and antiracist discourses, especially those influenced by critical social research.

4.3.2 Society, politics and education

Societies are comprised of groups of people socially related and networked. This collection of individuals provides those societies with their economic, industrial or social infrastructures. The main feature of a society is their sharing of a distinctive culture (Jorgensen *et al.*, 1997). Politics in society is about decision making, and thus each society has a political culture, the values, beliefs and norms that they share together (Tsebelis (1995). These are the ones that not only bind one individual member of the society to another, but also to the governing institutions established. The bottom-line is that politics affects the way of life of the members of the society such as education, health, and the economy. Knowledge of this political culture enables people to make sense of how they are governed and how political decisions are made.

Etymologically, politics can be traced from a Greek word 'politicos', meaning of, for, or relating to citizens affairs, and because the Greek citizens were organised in city states, politics referred to the affairs of the

city state people. (Ryan 2012). The source defines the concept as the practice and theory of influencing other people on a civic or individual level. More narrowly, it refers to achieving and exercising positions of governance or organised control over a human community, particularly a state. A variety of methods are employed in politics, such as promoting one's own political views among the public, negotiating, making laws and using force. Politics is exercised in different societies and levels including traditional groups.

Modern industrial societies operate in states with national political systems. Writers in the sociology of politics have argued that the politics of the modern world is about power and power differentials (Taylor, 1997, Browne, 1992; Giddens & Held, 1982). The key power institutions in modern societies are the state as well as the various decision making entities such as parliament, cabinet and the judiciary, while the key power concepts are authority and coercion. The state manages the system on behalf of the class in power through a political philosophy chosen. In democratic societies, legitimate authority often prevails while in dictatorships, the practice is hegemony.

On education and society, Taylor (1997) citing Bowles & Gintis (1976), portrays a very close relationship between the two. He argues that education is part of the superstructure of the society that shapes the consciousness of the recipients. For example, in capitalist nations, students will be exposed to an education that would prepare them to become future workers, and even the structure and organisation of schools would portray features of the work place. Head teachers would exert authority over teachers, who in turn would control the activities of students, just as in a factory where a top manager will give orders to line managers that will eventually trickle down to ordinary workers on the floor.

In the communist world, education policies have had aims of furthering the interest of the down-trodden. Cited in an online source, Bukharin & Preobrazhensky (1969) assert that after the 1917 Bolshevik Revolution in

Russia, there was an equally revolutionary change in the goals of schooling so as to raise the life of the backward strata of the working population to the requisite level of communist consciousness. The Bolsheviks argued that the bourgeoisie used the school for the enslavement of the labourers, it was then their turn to turn the tide about and make the proletariat utilise the schools to enfranchise and sweep away the last traces of spiritual slavery from the consciousness of the workers. In the realm of the mind and in the psychological sphere, the communist school aimed at the revolutionary overthrow of the domineering bourgeois class.

From socialist Africa, Tanzania post-colonial education policies may be a good example of society attempting to introduce education policies with the aim of moulding the young for future roles of their new nation (See Chapter Two Section 2.4.1 of this thesis). The new education policies worked from the premise that colonial education was elitist, and only catered for the needs and interests of the minority who would enter the hierarchical pyramid of formal schooling. Thus the new policy was geared towards producing teachers, engineers, administrators (Nyerere, 1968). The re-organisation of the system saw policies that introduced productive work together with academics, and downgrading the status of tests and examinations. As pointed out in Chapter 2, the policies met with less success due to internal and external factors.

Whereas it is important for education policies to feature such very ambitious aims as in the communist and socialist examples here-above, it is equally important to be reminded that in practice what often goes on in schools may be quite the opposite. The policies may carry clear objectives that target democratic tendencies, whereas the actual teaching practices may feature un-democratic tendencies such as teacher-centred teaching, gender disparity, undemocratic behaviour and social injustice. The causes of this disparity may be of various nature, but the likely culprit is likely to be the huge control in the way education policies are made and then dictated to the teaching staff and school administrators.

4.4 The Politics of Curriculum Development and Reform

In stressing that school curricula are governed by the political dynamics of the country, Levin (2007:8) observes:

Policies govern just about every aspect of education—what schooling is provided, how, to whom, in what form, by whom, with what resources, and so on. The application of these terms to curriculum is evident. Curriculum concerns what is taught—a fundamental aspect of schooling and thus of public policy.

In many countries today, curriculum policies are undergoing change intended to produce school results that would be in favour of both local and national objectives as well those at global level. Such 'change' policies often become key agenda in forums that involve educationists, other professionals, politicians and the general public (Braun, Maguire & Ball, 2010), Rizvi & Lingard, 2010). On the other hand, Pinar & Bowers (1992:163) have suggested that education and in particular curriculum has been a centre of critical perspectives originating from the Frankfurt School of Critical Theory as well as from Marxist and Neo-Marxist thinkers such as Antonio Gramsci, Raymond Williams and Paulo Freire. The Marxist and Neo-Marxist thinkers however are noted to have identified themselves in three distinct sub-groups. The first propounding critical pedagogy, (Seehwa, 2013, Nikolakaki, 2012, Giroux, 2011, and Smyth 2011), the second in favour of critical scholarship and the politics of curriculum, (Apple, 1990a; Apple 1990b, Cho, 2013, Wink 2011), and the third, going for a critic of the two groups and considering ideology as key to the new sociology of education and curriculum (Wexler, 1991). Pinar & Bowers (1992:164) claim that these groups set off the politics of curriculum agenda:

Collectively, this effort—increasingly diverse and acrimonious—to understand curriculum as a political text represents the largest body of contemporary scholarship in the field. Especially due to the efforts of Michael W. Apple and Henry A. Giroux, political scholarship functioned to reconceptualize the curriculum field from

its moribund, atheoretical state Schwab decried in 1970 to its dynamic and complex configuration today.

Haddad (op.cit) has suggested that just as there are procedures to be followed in *developing* school curricula, *reforming* them should also follow certain steps for effective results. He argues that a curriculum policy change, like other policies is normally a response to a problem or set of problems in the sector, and the take off point should be a thorough analysis of the sector itself. This analysis should touch on the social, political, economic, demographic, cultural aspects. Thus the country's background, the political context, the economy and the education sector should be subjected to a thorough 'clinical' diagnosis. The latter in particular should inform on key issues of the sector such as access to educational opportunities; equity in the distribution of educational services; structure of the education system; internal and external efficiency, and institutional arrangement.

Interest groups, often neglected in state-controlled curriculum planning, are a key element that needs to be analysed so as to establish their strength. These may include teachers, students, parents and administrators. Apart from having a stake in the curriculum, these may influence the curriculum positively if their interests are taken on board. The opposite will be the case if they are excluded. The process of generating policy options can then follow so as to address the identified problem. Policy options should be based on policy models, and more often a combination of good aspects from several models. These options should be considered in terms of desirability, affordability and feasibility. Once this is done, policy implementation can begin, that is the moving of physical and human resources for translating the curriculum into reality. After a life span of some years, there would be need to conduct a policy assessment check to establish impact, the result of which may lead to revisiting the first stage in the process. Ideally, the process appears to be straight forward, but in reality it is not. In addressing some of the major complexities of curriculum reform, Kelly (2009:7) provides the following advice:

We have noted that one of those lessons has been that the teachers' role is central to effectiveness of any attempt at curriculum change or development. The converse of this is what we have also learnt concerning the role, effectiveness and indeed the value of national agencies for curriculum development and change.

Kelly (op.cit) also emphasised the role played by external agencies in supporting curriculum change within schools rather than imposing it from without. The other thing that comes into mind here is that curriculum change can and should be planned if the identified problems have to be effectively addressed.

4.5 Chapter Summary

The aim of this chapter was to explore existing literature on the policy process so as to locate the study within existing body of knowledge. The chapter discussed the concept of public policy process and the different policy making models to show the existing variations on how policy is conceptualised. The chapter then discussed policy sociology as a tool of policy analysis, the relationship between society, politics and education before concluding with the politics of curriculum. Basically, the literature explored suggests that public policies cannot be isolated from their social and political contexts, and that the process of making policies is in itself a political decision. The literature has also indicated that policy sociology apart from yielding useful knowledge regarding policy making and hence contributing to solutions, has its own intricacies, and thus critical sociologists are continuously working to come up with some other tools of analysis. As for the relationship between society, politics and education, the literature suggests that they have a close affinity in that education is supposed to carry the societal values over generations. The dilemma however is that in many cases, the state would make curriculum policies that only carry the values of the elites to preserve and maintain their status-quo.

CHAPTER FIVE

DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY OF THE STUDY

5.1 Introduction

This Chapter explicates my plan of enquiry in order to establish how the TC2005 was formulated, managed and implemented. In here, I delineate important aspects on the way I organized and carried out the study with specific emphasis on identification and soliciting participants, selection and preparation of research tools and other materials, and formulation of procedures that I followed during my six months stay in Tanzania for data collection. I begin by describing the conceptual base before moving on to the design and methodology, sample and sampling, data collection, access to research sites and analysis strategy. I then explain the concept of worthiness of the study and reflexivity. I consider the latter to be of profound importance because I was researching on a system that I have served for many years in different positions. In conclusion, I raise issues of ethical consideration before presenting a summary of the chapter.

5.2 Conceptual Framework

I located the problem of this research within Critical Policy Sociology (CPS), an approach to policy analysis rooted in the social science tradition, historically informed and drawing on qualitative and illuminative techniques (Ozga, 1987 as quoted in Gale, 2001). My major intention was to establish the formulation, management and implementation of the Tanzania 2005 curriculum policy. My main focus in using CPS was to understand the methodological approaches used in producing the TC2005 policy text as well as the practicalities of translating it in schools.

Ball (1993) distinguishes between policy as *text* and policy as *discourse*; a distinction that has attracted comments and criticisms from others; (See McPherson & Raab, 1988, Bowe *et al.*, 1992, Gale, 2001, and Ozga, 1987). These criticisms notwithstanding, I found Ball's categorization quite relevant in this study as it underlines the general belief by post-modernist social analysts that policy intents are not necessarily translated as they were originally meant to be at the micro-levels (See Baachi, 2008,

Spillane, 2002, Shapiro, 1993, and Dobuzinskis, 1992). In fact, a study by McLaughlin (1987:172) discovered that implementers often reacted contrary to what the policies instructed, and at times even responded idiosyncratically and in resistant ways. Theories of scientific management and economics have not been able to explain the reasons for this discrepancy. In an attempt to do so, Spillane *et al.* (op.cit:732) assert that implementation involves interpretation and figuring out what a policy means and whether and how it applies to the implementers' specific context. Answers to these questions enable them to adapt, adopt or ignore a particular policy.

Reporting on the analysis of the Australian higher education entry policy in 1980s and 1990s, Gale (2001) delineates three main approaches to education policy analysis namely *historiography*, *genealogy* and *archaeology*. Of relative importance to my study was policy historiography which is an approach related to the substantive issues of the policy at particular hegemonic moments. Historiography covers public issues and at a certain span of time, how they were addressed, what they are now, and the nature of the change that has occurred. It also covers the complexities in the accounts, what these accounts reveal and who are benefitting and who are not. Genealogy and archaeology are basically Foucauldian, and thus outside the scope of my study. Applying historiography as a tool of analysis, Gale (ibid.) came up with three key questions: (i) What am I looking to produce by way of the analysis? (ii) Where and how will I find the policy and information to analyse? (iii) How will I present what I find? These are more-or-less the same questions that I asked myself in my attempt to trace what transpired in the TC2005 trajectory.

Conclusively, the conceptual framework was intended to work from a certain base, i.e. the complexities of formulating and changing public policies, and that policies needed to be defined from a wider socio-political perspective and not only as the official prescriptions that come down from the government.

5.3. Design and Methodology of the Study

This study was intended to be qualitative in nature and based on descriptive and interpretative approaches. The field data included interview and focus group transcriptions, documentary summaries and opinions of different cadre of participants. Data collection and analysis were carried out concurrently such that the study findings within the raw data were uncovered as the story progressed. My orientation throughout the study was to extract and describe the findings ‘hidden’ in the data in order to understand their meaning.

5.3.1 Sample and sampling

Sample selection was made possible through the use of household poverty indicators produced by the Tanzania National Bureau of Statistics (2004/2005). I designed a typology that yielded a ‘poverty league table’ of all the 14 districts in the 2 administrative regions – code-named Region A and Region B. This typology is given as Appendix XIII in the thesis. The poverty aspect was important for this study because what is taught in schools (with what means and in what context) is a great equalizer of opportunity to overcome problems facing disadvantaged communities (Levin, 2007).

I then picked 4 districts from the ‘league table’, i.e. 2 out of the 8 districts from Region A, and another 2 out of the 6 districts from Region B to become the study districts. The selected districts scored comparatively lower on the table and thus convinced me that they were likely to indicate features that were more relevant to the study purpose. I also thought of cost factors (e.g. travelling and daily subsistence) as I had to use my own financial sources for the data collection exercise because my bursary as provided by the employer did not include fieldwork costing. I scheduled the fieldwork for January through June, having used my first two months in Tanzania (November and December) for piloting and reviewing the instruments as well as making concrete plans for the fieldwork. Weather conditions were other factors that I had to deal with. It dawned on me that the study location receives its regular heavy rainfall from February onwards, and this had to be considered when choosing the data collection

points in the districts. In Tanzania, there are several locations which cannot be accessed during such times.

I used Likert-scale questionnaire for ministry and district level participants, and teachers in primary and secondary schools. I also carried out focus group sessions with members of school committees and students to supplement the formal interviews. In addition, I used existing secondary information and literature sources from the Ministry of Education, the National Bureau of Statistics and the Ministry for Local Government which currently administers all primary and secondary schools in the country. In total, 8 primary schools (4 from rural and 4 from urban setting), 3 secondary schools (2 rural and 1 urban), and one rural teachers' college, were picked as data collection sites. The urban-rural dichotomy was important in order yield richer data that would afford comparison and corroboration at the analysis stage. Table 5.1 gives a summary of the sampled districts and schools, whereas Table 5.2 provides a summary of all the participants.

Table 5.1: Regions, districts and institutions selected for the study

<i>Administrative Region</i>	<i>Districts</i>	<i>Rural</i>			<i>Urban</i>		
		Primary school	Secondary schools	Teachers' colleges	Primary schools	Secondary schools	TTCs
A	A1	1	1	-	1	-	-
	A2	1	1	1	1	-	-
B	B1	2	-	-	-	-	-
	B2	-	-	-	2	1	-
Total		4	2	1	4	1	
<i>Other locations</i>		<i>Quantity</i>					
International institutions		2					
Local non-state institutions		3					

Source: Author's categorisation of study districts and schools

I purposively selected people responsible for education affairs in international and local non-government institutions that have been

supporting education in Tanzania for information gathering through interviews. I was aware that these were in close contact with education authorities due to their frequent visits and meetings in which they discuss modalities and effective use of the support they provided. I also applied purposive sampling to select respondents in the schools, districts, and at the Ministry of Education headquarters. This was necessary as my main intention was to acquire in-depth information on how they were involved in the curriculum reform process under study. I identified the students to participate in the study using a set of criteria that I had developed earlier on, and which I shared with the heads on my arrival at the schools. The criteria are detailed after Table 5. 2.

Table 5.2: Detailed categorization of study participants

Data source	Description	Gender		Quantity
		Female	Male	
Non-state instits.	CEOs	1	2	3
International instits.	Education specialists / coordinators	1	1	2
Secondary schools	School heads	0	3	3
	Teachers	7	9	16
	Students (3 focus groups)	8	10	18
Primary schools	School heads	4	4	8
	Teachers / assistant heads	34	24	58
	Committee members (4 focus groups)	6	7	13
	Students (8 focus groups)	30	21	51
Teachers colleges	College principal	1	0	1
	Trainees (1 focus group)	2	2	4
Ministry	Senior decision makers	0	2	2
	Subject coordinators	3	3	6
Districts	Education officers / inspectors	9	7	16
Total		106	95	201

Source: Author's summary of participants

Primary Schools

In primary schools, I used three criteria to pick the focus group participants. First a student should have been at the particular school for 5-6 years by the time of the fieldwork was being carried out. Such students

were in Class 2 or 3 when the new curriculum was introduced in January 2005. Thus by the time of the fieldwork (January - May 2010) they were in Class 6 or 7, and aged between 12 and 13 years. Second was students' ability to express themselves well in Kiswahili. Those who were not able to do so would have forced me to spend time in rephrasing questions and concepts to trigger a lively discussion, and consequently elongating the sessions unnecessarily. Having been a primary school teacher in a rural community some years back, and given my knowledge of the linguistic heterogeneity of the country, I foresaw the possibility of having such learners in some rural primary schools. Third, the selected groups were to balance in terms of gender.

For the teachers, apart from gender representation, I wanted to meet those with more than 15 years experience in the field, and also should have been present at the particular school in early 2005 when the new curriculum was being launched. With this field experience, these teachers had witnessed the previous curriculum reform in (1996/97) and therefore were in a better position to contribute effectively towards the study. For the head teachers' category, I simply picked those holding the headship posts in the schools visited. For heads who were in different schools in 2005, they answered the interview questions based on what they witnessed in those former schools.

Secondary Schools

Here, the same criteria used in primary schools were used to select the students' focus group participants. However, because these were all lower secondary ones (S1-S4), in which none of the students was present when the new curriculum was introduced in 2005; I decided to pick the longest timers i.e. S4 students, who in 2005 were in P6 in various primary schools. To me this did not pose any problem; rather it enriched the focus group sessions as I foresaw the discussion moving from what transpired in their former (primary) schools as well as what was then happening in their new (secondary) schools. As for the secondary school teachers, I used the same criteria for their primary school colleagues to pick the ones to participate in answering the questionnaire.

International and local non-state institutions

Regarding participants from international institutions, I used attendance records and minutes of the joint sessions between the Ministry of Education and donors supporting the education sector in Tanzania. I gathered from these records that the institutions were often represented by officers holding the positions of education ‘specialists’, ‘advisors’ or ‘coordinators’. As my main concern was to get information from the people who were in the right positions to provide it, I singled out these individuals on the basis of their positions. I picked two representatives from this group, one from the institution that provided the largest sum of financial support to education between 2004 and 2010, and another one from the institution that was then acting as chair of the donor forum. I felt that in this capacity, these had a closer link to senior government staff and hence well informed of what went on and was then going on regarding education in general and the new curriculum in particular. For the non-state institutions, the CEOs of four institutions were contacted for interviews. Three accepted my invitation and one rejected my request without giving any reason.

Ministry of Education Headquarters

Participants who agreed to answer the study questionnaire from the Ministry of Education were coordinators of various subject units in the primary, secondary, teacher education and inspectorate directorates. As insiders and experts in the education system, I trusted that they had first-hand information regarding the changes that were made on the subjects that they co-ordinated. Within this category, I also included retired officials who in 2005 were occupying positions closely related to decision-making and the actual planning and introduction of the new curriculum. These participated in an interview.

In summary, the participants were 8 focus groups of primary school students, 3 focus groups of secondary school students, 1 focus group of teacher trainees, 4 focus groups of school committee members, 16 secondary school teachers, 58 primary school teachers, 8 primary school heads, 3 secondary school heads, 1 teachers’ college principal, 2

representatives from international organizations, 3 CEOs of local non-state institutions, and 16 education officials and school inspectors. Table 5.2 summarises the data sources, their description as well as the quantity.

5.3.2 Instrumentation

Data for this study were obtained using Likert scale questionnaires, semi-structured interview schedules, focus group discussions and documentary analysis.

Documentary review

Documentary review involves studying records of events or processes produced in different forms and by individuals or institutions. As stated by Lodico *et al*, (2006), educational institutions are amongst the many economic, social and cultural organizations producing documents that are interesting to researchers, and an ‘an onslaught’ on them by a researcher may yield useful data,

Like other government ministries, the Tanzania Ministry of Education works largely by documentation. Before the launching of the 2005 curriculum, I witnessed various meetings within the Ministry and without. So I consulted minutes of various meetings at the Ministry with permission of the officers concerned. I specifically targeted information produced between 2003 and 2010. My line of thinking was that the inside story of the curriculum I was investigating could be portrayed in records prior to the launching as well as from records thereafter. The usefulness of records of meetings is that they are interactional with a give-and-take form of exchanges dominating. In this way, if they are well-recorded, one can get a deeper insight and a shared understanding of the phenomenon being researched. Apart from meeting records, I also managed to consult other records such as press releases to the public, advertisements, communiqués, written communication in files between different departments, and circulars. My reason for consulting these documents was to help in corroborating and backing up information availed from other sources.

It should however be noted that consulting records of a complex institution such as the Tanzania Ministry of Education was not easy because there

were hundreds of them. To reduce this problem, I needed to know the right documents and exactly where to get them. So I designed a chart showing which type of information I was looking for and in which file it could be found. The documents consulted and analysed are given as Appendix XVII in the thesis.

Likert scale questionnaire

This is a rating scale type of questionnaire that allows a range of responses that require respondents to rate them (Cohen *et al.*, 2011:390). It offers degrees of responses and intensity, and at the same time makes it possible to generate numbers for analysis purposes. Cohen et al (ibid.) recommend rating scale questionnaires in studies that seek for views and opinions. They argue that such questions provide more opportunity than dichotomous questions for rendering data more sensitive and responsive to respondents. This feature makes rating scales particularly useful for tapping attitudes, perceptions and opinions.

This is the major reason that made me prefer the Likert scale as one of the methods for collecting views and opinions from classroom practitioners, i.e. primary and secondary school teachers and teacher trainers regarding relevance and practicability of TC2005. I also felt that the Likert scale made it easy for respondents to distinguish between choices. Oppenheim (1992:187) argues that the Likert scale assumes 'uni-dimensionality' that enables one kind of attitude to be measured at a time. Copies of these questionnaires are given in the thesis as Appendix X.

Regarding the appropriateness of the Likert scale to district level education administrators, I designed the instrument in such a way as to avoid stringent questions that would have taken plenty of the respondents' time to work on. Having served in the education system of the country myself, I was quite aware of the fact that district education officials were expected to use more of their time out of the office and in schools overseeing how things are working out there. Thus this questionnaire was more convenient as it enabled them to use just a few minutes on it and then continue with their other official tasks. As for the ministry level

education officials, again as an ‘insider’, I was familiar with the frequent, and often-times ad-hoc internal and external meetings that made many a time impossible to keep appointments. So the Likert scale questionnaire became a far less tasking instrument for them.

These advantages notwithstanding, I acknowledged the weak points inherent in this type of instrument and thus devised certain strategies to minimize them. According to Denscombe (2014), Thomas (2013) and Cohen *et al* (op.cit), Likert scales offer few responses and provide no opportunity for further information. I countered this weakness by inserting free space for further comments in some of the questions; especially those that I felt were more sensitive than others. The other problem is that in the process of responding to the questions, respondents may avoid extreme positions by converging in the mid-points especially in scales with phrases such as *best...worst; generous....mean* or *useful...useless*. To reduce this problem, I constructed all the questions with a 1-4 point scale, where 1 stood for *strongly agree*, 2 for *agree*, 3 for *disagree*, and 4 for *strongly disagree*. Thus whichever point the respondents picked, they were agreeing or disagreeing anyhow.

The other problem in such questionnaire is that of the researcher being uncertain on whether the answers given were not false. To be honest, there was no easy way for me to check this and be certain; however, I felt that this weakness and a few others aforementioned were immensely minimized through my presentation strategies. I was open and honest with the respondents regarding who I was, where I came from and what the purpose of my study was. Moreover, the questionnaires were piloted and reviewed before the actual fieldwork.

Semi-structured interview

The kind of interview used in research is an issue of ‘fitness for purpose’. In the semi-structured kind of interview, the interviewer and respondents engage in a formal interview kind of conversation with the former following a guide developed prior to the session. This is a list of questions or themes to be covered during the conversation, and in a

specified order. This allows the interviewer to be prepared and appear competent during the interview. The other thing is that in semi-structured interviews, the interviewer may stray from the guide when necessary but without losing direction of the conversation. Moreover, semi-structured interviews also enable participants' freedom of expression in the process answering the researcher's questions. Semi-structure interviews can provide reliable, comparable qualitative data. The National Institute of Quebec (2009:vii) recommends this type of interview as follows:

Interviews of this type are suited to working with small samples and are useful for studying specific situations or for supplementing and validating information derived from other sources used for making safety diagnoses. In addition, since they provide access to perceptions and opinions, they are effective for gaining insight into problems that are not immediately perceptible but that nonetheless cause concern in certain areas or in certain segments of the population.

Given the descriptive and interpretative nature of this study, I opted for semi-structured interviews in which I would command minimal control and allow the participants to be free to express their feelings. I felt that in this way, they would open up and tell me what they knew about the 2005 curriculum reform. I therefore developed a set of 6 - 8 open-ended key questions that probed for 'how' and 'why'. These were tested in a mock interview with my supervisory team and reviewed thereafter. They were again reviewed after piloting them in Tanzania before embarking on the actual field trips. The interviews probed on practicability and relevance of the curriculum, the nature and purpose of the envisaged curriculum, deployment of resources and how communication as a management function, was conducted. The time span for each interview session was between 45-60 minutes. The language of communication during the interviews was Kiswahili at the schools, colleges and with non-state institutions. English was used at the Ministry and international institutions.

As described earlier on, participants at the school level were the heads or deputy heads, were contacted through their mobile numbers before-hand,

and the sessions were held in their offices. Often this was done as the final activity during my stay at the schools after meeting the students and the school committee members. This allowed time for the heads to help me in organising my things during my presence as well as carrying out their normal administrative duties. The international and non-state institutions were also contacted by phone or email for appointments as they are normally very busy people. I carried out all the interviews in person.

Focus group discussions

A focus group interview involves respondents with a common feature, brought together in a formal setting to get them understand the beliefs and values on an issue, (Thomas, 2014). Focus group sessions were conducted with primary and secondary school students, school committee members and teacher trainees. The groups were picked using criteria discussed earlier on in this section and lasted for 45 - 60 minutes. During the sessions, I tried as much as possible to make the groups take the lead and I assumed a facilitation role. The main strength of a focus group interview in this case was that I was able to collect data from multiple participants at the same time and record the group interactions and dynamics, (Lodico *et al.*, 2006). The gist of these interviews was on curriculum relevance, the role played by the respondents in the curriculum reform process, management practices, and deployment of financial resources. In each school and college, the focus group sessions were recorded using a digital recorder with the permission of the participants

5.4 Accessing Study Sites and Participants

Soon after my arrival in Tanzania for the fieldwork end of October 2010, I commenced the process of seeking official permission to conduct my study from the Policy and Planning Department at the Ministry of Education. As pointed out by Bogdan & Biklen (2003), and Feldman & Bell (2003), in other countries, such government authorisation would only allow the researcher access into study sites; in Tanzania however, a research clearance letter provides both right to entry into sites and cooperation from gate keepers (e.g. school heads) and participants. After submitting my application together with the Glasgow University attachments,

bureaucracy took its course and I was able to get the authorisation after 10 days.

As I was conducting a greater part of my study in the districts and schools that were administered by local government authorities, the clearance from the ministry suggested that I should also be cleared by these authorities before going into schools. The local government education personnel also gave me the school heads' mobile numbers which helped me to arrange my visits at their convenient dates and time. In so doing, my visits did not interfere with the normal school business.

Once in the schools, I adopted a 'uniform' pattern of procedure namely reporting to the school head for introduction and presentation of the papers, explaining the motive of my visit and then discussing the *modus operandi*. The discussion included quantity, characteristics and gender aggregation of the participants. We also agreed on the location for the focus group sessions.

The pupils' sessions were conducted under the shades of trees on the school compound, while the school committee sessions were carried out in the head teachers' offices. In three schools where the heads were away, the deputies had to make telephone calls to their heads before allowing me to commence my task. In one school, the deputy was not ready to be interviewed and I had to wait for the head to come back from the nearby town where he had gone for official business. I waited for more than four hours and used this time to diary what was going on. I developed a habit of reading it frequently especially at the end of the visit and when making preparations for another visit. This strategy was of great help in looking back on my own self. A sample copy of the diary extracts are given in the thesis as Appendix XVI.

5.5 Data Analysis Strategy

Questionnaires were used to collect data related to teachers' and students' assessment of the curriculum implementation in their schools. Focus group discussions were employed to examine their views and opinion about quality of curriculum and its effects in delivering quality

education. Focus group discussions were also conducted with parents to get their opinions and views on their involvement in curriculum development and implementation. Interviews were conducted with education policy makers at regional and district levels which also assessed their views and opinions about the quality of curriculum and how it affects the quality of education. Education policy statements and content standards as reflected in the subject syllabi and textbooks were subjected to content analysis to assess their relation to and possible effects and consequences on the quality of education offered as reflected in the learning competencies displayed by learners.

Qualitative data were recorded verbatim. Focus group discussions and interview proceedings were transcribed, printed out and read through a couple of times to get a familiarisation until patterns started to emerge. Themes were then identified from the transcriptions, which formed the unit of analysis. The themes and the descriptions with the accompanying quotes were used to collaborate and elaborate the results of the questionnaire.

In qualitative research, data analysis is a rather complex phase as it demands the researcher to engage in active analytic processes throughout all phases of the research in order to transform the corpus of raw data into novel knowledge. The main task in analyzing qualitative data is to systematically look for patterns of themes from field transcriptions, notes and documents collected in attempt to make meaning out of them. In this study, these transcriptions of responses from the semi structured and focus group interviews, responses from Likert scale, and the summaries of documents and notes formed the basis for a thematic analysis.

First, I organized the data by dating and sequencing using Word Processing programme folders. I made copies of these to preserve the originals from the ones that I continuously edited during the process. I then identified some common occurring threads from this exercise. Second, I made an attempt to describe the events, episodes, contexts and participants' perspectives in order to tease out and cluster together similar ideas into

topics separating groupings of data. Third, I designed a coding system in order to classify the data into categories.

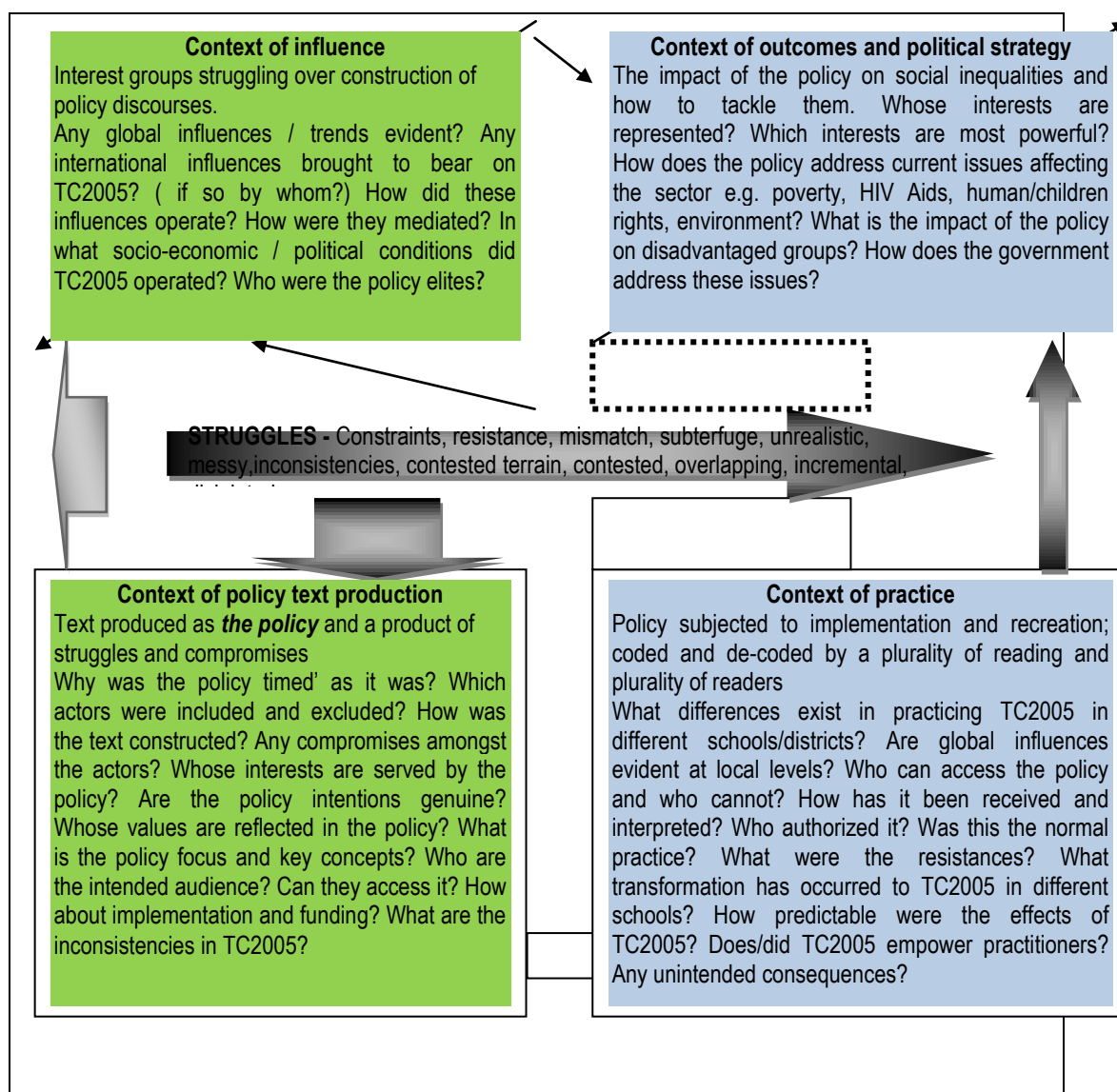
The questionnaires were in paper form and hence after administering them, I had to transfer the responses manually into a spreadsheet. I began by putting each question number as a column heading, using single rows as respondents' answers. I then coded the answers by assigning numbers to each one of them. Going through each one of the respondents' answers, I coded them accordingly and transferred them onto a spreadsheet. The main purpose of coding the data was to (i) make some sense out of each set, (ii) look for patterns and relationships both within and across the collections, and (iii) make general discoveries on the phenomena researched. I assigned a different topic name for each of them.

After checking them for error of omission or wrong entry, I went on to calculate how many people had selected each response. The spread sheet programme assisted in adding up and filtering each question. From the spreadsheet, I designed simple tables to display the summaries of the responses. I made note of any variations from the different respondents on same / similar questions. For example, I compared responses of primary school teachers on communication, feedback and monitoring of TC2005 with responses of secondary school teachers on the same themes. From this analysis, I came up with a story that added to the one derived from the interviews, focus group discussions and documentary review.

Fourth, I studied the codes and interpreted them with support of the descriptive texts, visuals, figures and tables that I made. As asserted by Basit, (2010), my philosophical position and concern all through the exercise has been the belief that relevant reality takes place in subjective experience, in social context, and in historical time.

The process of getting meaning from these data was made possible through an eclectic model of data analysis that I curved (Figure 5.2) from studies carried by Vidovich (2001), Gale (2002), Ball (1994a, c), Ball (1993) and Bow *et al* (1992).

Figure 5.2: Data analysis framework



Source: Adapted from Vidovich (2001), Gale (2002), Ball (1994a, c), and Bowe *et al* (1992)

The questions in the green boxes on the left form the basis of analysis and interpretation in Chapter 6 of this thesis titled *Production of the Tanzania Curriculum Policy Text* whereas those in the blue boxes on the right guide similar process in Chapter 7 titled *Enactment of Tanzania Curriculum Policy - 2005*.

5.6 Trustworthiness

The concept of trustworthiness implies establishing the truth value of the study, and thus it relates to *validity* and *reliability* in studies oriented towards positivist paradigm (Boudah, 2011; Shenton, 2004). Trustworthiness convinces the audience that the findings and the

conclusions are credible and appropriate because they were based on 'good science' (Boudah, *ibid*:75). In this study, I paid attention to several aspects that are known to enhance worthiness of research, and an account of them is warranted here; but first, a word about the methodology utilized.

I employed a qualitative approach to the study due to the fact that I was intending to describe human behaviour through their views, opinions and ideas with regard to curriculum reform. As noted by Merriam, (2009) and Miles & Huberman, (1994), it is difficult to seek and obtain such information through positivist approaches. My data collection instruments included individual semi-structured interviews, focus group discussion sessions, documentary review and Likert-scale questionnaires. In a way, I was following the foot-steps of other experienced researchers in social science fields such as anthropology, psychology and sociology, who regularly make use of this approach to account for the ways that people organize, relate and interact with the world (Shenton, 2004; Silverman, 2001; Silverman, 2000; Lincoln, 1995; Krefting, 1990; Denzin and & Lincoln, 1994). By adopting this approach however, I did not lose track of the existing criticisms against it; and in particular the disagreements about philosophical assumptions and the nature of qualitative data. My take is that these will be continuous world debates of the academic world.

Second, I visited the sampled schools and spent between 3 to 4 days in each one. This duration of stay not only enabled me to become familiar with the school physical and social context, but I also learnt a lot about what was and what was not happening to my expectations. For practicability reasons, observation was not one of my data collection techniques, however I kept a diary of what I witnessed, which later proved to be a useful record. As noted in Kawulich (2005); Cohen *et al* (*op.cit*), despite its diversity, permanency and how it complements other approaches, observation is time consuming and resource intensive, and thus deemed not feasible in this particular case. It is also susceptible to observer bias and thus undermines data *reliability* and *validity*. There is also a potential for observer effect.

Third, the credibility of the study was strengthened by triangulation through the use of different data collection methods as well as the variety of informants from different sources. Through these, I was able to verify and corroborate different viewpoints and experiences against each other and paint richer pictures of the phenomena I was querying. For example, I sought for information from school heads, classroom teachers, students and parents in the school communities. What they told me was checked against information I received from district education officers, district school inspectors and officials from the Ministry of Education. I also received information from participants outside Government circles such as international institutions and non-state local institutions, many of whom were critical of the Government as will be pointed out in later chapters.

Fourth, I made use of tactics that ensured honesty in informants. For instance, I created as much rapport as possible at the beginning of each session by informing the participants that the questions were only intended to seek their opinions and views, and as such there were no right or wrong answers. I further described my independent status by informing them that my study had nothing to do with Government work or my professional background, rather it was a requirement for my PhD studies at Glasgow University. I provided opportunity for them to take part or refuse to do so. For those who decided to continue, I allowed them to be free to opt out at any time during the sessions even without giving reasons for this decision. They were also free to reject to answer questions that they felt they should not.

Fifth, I employed iterative questioning techniques to uncover deliberate contradictions during the interviews and focus group sessions. In several occasions, I probed participants by going back and forth and through rephrasing and paraphrasing issues already raised. Indeed I had several cases of inconsistent pieces of information, and I had to discard several of these as I weeded the corpus of information collected. In some cases I thought it was necessary to retain some and offer explanations as part of the findings.

Sixth, the credibility of this study was also enhanced by other professionals, especially through the monthly, fortnightly, and later weekly supervisory sessions at the School of Education; Glasgow University. These sessions not only helped me to re-direct the work in the right way, but also created a clearer vision as these experienced researchers identified flows, inconsistencies and at times inappropriate interpretation and bias. The study also benefitted from peers in my post-graduate working station at the School of Education. The learner-friendly seating plan of the station enabled a collegial-type of relationship between the 4 - 8 students who were always in attendance. An individual student could walk over to a colleague for a 'chat' on their work, or may simply stand up and just 'think aloud' on anything that they find unclear for colleagues to offer suggestions. Many a time, they did so and made the place sociable.

This study was also the source of two paper presentations in staff students' seminars at the School of Education, one poster presentation in the 2012 SERA Conference in Stirling, a paper presentation in South Africa (CITE Conference) and a paper presentation during the 2013 SERA Conference at Glasgow University. I also used some of the data in a joint published paper with a colleague (Dr. Muhamad Ashraf, Canada). The critics who commented on these presentations were outsiders, and their comments provided the necessary feedback to challenge my assumptions and line of thinking. With such a closer attachment to the study, I might have overlooked some of these assumptions without this outside challenge.

Seventh, my biographical information as a teacher, teacher trainer, curriculum developer, and education policy maker and planner worked to the benefit of the study. I was the major instrument in designing the study, collecting data and carrying out the analysis (Refer to Chapter 8, Section 8.5). Thanks to the arrangements made by Glasgow University where PhD students are given training in conducting different types of research studies. I participated fully in these courses and I also registered for online courses on data analysis. I utilised the knowledge and skills gained through these programmes to improve on the work.

5.7 Reflexivity and Researcher's Role

Reflexivity in qualitative research implies openness, awareness, transparency and to be forthcoming, (Creswell, 2012; Lichtman, 2010; Jupp, 2006). The term literally means 'bending back on oneself, (Watt, 2007); and thus it is a process of self-examination informed by thoughts and actions of the researcher. Openness and transparency however can threaten respondents as there may be stories too emotional to disclose to the researcher. The crucial aspect for the researcher then is to be conscious of their influence on the research, as well as the influence of the research on them (Jupp, *ibid.*). That is qualitative researchers must be conscious of the effects of their own positions and structures so that these do not bias their studies. I therefore embarked on this study with full awareness that I was 'an insider', studying a system that I have served for a substantial part of my life. I decided however that this characteristic should not prevent me from producing a good scholarly report by attempting to gain any favours from the respondents.

On the other hand, reflecting on my own 'self' during this study does not imply that I distanced myself completely for the sake of objectivity. As noted by Sikes (2008), and Watt (2007), I was not a static human being who maintained an aloof posture as I pursued my thoughts, dreams and desires as well as the thoughts, dreams and desires of the people I consulted to provide data. Rather, I was immersed, involved and was able to express myself regarding who I was and what will come out of the study. I also listened keenly. I observed things, interviewed participants and recorded what they said; and as pointed out earlier, I documented things in a diary and developed a habit of coming back to it frequently. As asserted by Lichtman (*op.cit.*), through my sense organs, I gathered and interpreted data, I brought out meaning from an amalgam of words and interpretations, and I made adaptations and modifications. Indeed I was the conduit through which information flowed and thus I shaped the research from its crescent stage to a final piece of creative work. The work shaped me too (Haskell, Linds & Ippolito, 2002).

5.8 Ethical Considerations

Ethical issues are generally concerned with respect for persons, beneficence and justice (Suter, 2012; Wiles *et al.*, 2008), and thus following research ethics reduces the likelihood of harm to information providers. Therefore it is important for the researcher to identify such potentials to participants and seek to ensure that they were minimized if not prevented completely. It was a requirement of the University of Glasgow to follow the guidelines provided in this respect. This was done before I left for the fieldwork in Tanzania. Lichtman (op.cit); Bell (2005) and Creswell, (op.cit) list the major ethical issues as striving to do no harm, ensuring privacy and anonymity of information providers, confidentiality, informed consent, creation of rapport, avoiding inappropriate behaviour, and sticking to appropriate data interpretation. The major ethical conditions that guided my study were participants' anonymity, confidentiality, informed consent and safety. Throughout this research journey, I strived to observe these concerns as described here-under:

Anonymity

According to Lichtman (2010) anonymising the participants implies not linking the participants identity to the data collected as well as not disclosing them to anyone else. I managed to observe this condition by identifying the participants of the interviews and focus group discussions by pseudonyms and numbers. Those who answered the Likert scale questionnaire were not required to write their names anywhere on the paper. I did this as well for the regions and districts where the institutions were located as well as for the state and non-state institutions.

Confidentiality and privacy

Confidentiality reduces anguish to participants whereas privacy is the control of the data so that no other parties get access to them (Basit, 2010; Kinchloe 2006). I managed to do this by informing each individual participant who accepted to be interviewed or those that participated in

focus group session that the information they volunteered was solely for my studies. The practice I adopted was to relay this information to them prior to commencing any data collection activity. As for their privacy, I used a private password for all data stored in computer files. Further, all paper work (handwritten and printouts) were kept in secure lockers in Tanzania (my study room at home) and at my working station at the University of Glasgow. I destroyed any material that I felt I no longer needed by shredding them. I have not referred to any participant by name in this thesis or in any report, or journal article that may be published for purposes of confidentiality. Adhering to this ethical conduct, I have not used any real names of the people I met or places visited in the thesis.

Informed consent

Jupp (2006:149) describes informed consent as:

An ethical principle implying a responsibility on the part of the social researcher to strive to ensure that those involved as participants in the research not only agree and consent to participating the research on their own free choice, without being pressurised or influenced, but that they are fully informed about what it is they are consenting to.

In the actual fieldwork activity, I presented the information package to the respondents at the beginning of each encounter in which I informed them of the purpose of the study and emphasized on protecting their confidentiality and anonymity. I made them aware that participation in the study was voluntary and that those that accepted to do so were free to opt out any time during the process even without giving reasons. Acceptance to take part in the study was done by signing a form.

Safety

Safety of the participants, elsewhere termed ‘the principle of do-no-harm’ and seen as the cornerstone of ethical conduct (Lichtman 2010) is supposed to meet the expectation of the participants. Of certain the nature of my study was such that it was not likely to cause any physical

harm, however, qualitative approaches and especially the way the data are collected or publication of the findings may sometimes lead to psychological torture, embarrassment and adverse reactions (Lichtman 2010; Bell (2004). As a descriptive study, I was conscious of these facts and strived to narrate the story as authentic as possible but avoiding cues that might lead to people and institution identities.

5.9 Chapter Summary

This chapter presented the methodology of the research that is the way I conducted the study in order to find out how the Tanzania 2005 curriculum was formulated, managed and implemented. The study sites were identified on the basis of their poverty status, but also due consideration of my financial limitations and unfavourable weather conditions. Purposive sampling was used to select the participants who comprised of primary and secondary school students, teachers, school heads, district education officials and inspectors, school committee members and representatives of non-state institutions and international organizations. Data were collected through interviews, focus group sessions, documentary analysis and Likert scale questionnaires. Data analysis was completed by coding and generating themes that enabled discussion, interpretation and recommendations on the topic. In the next chapter, I analyse the data related to policy text production.

CHAPTER SIX

PRODUCTION OF THE TC2005 POLICY TEXT

Curriculum reforms are all about change. Nations, states, local communities and schools renew their curricula because their existing ones are not what they should be, or simply because there is a belief that changing the curriculum will also bring expected improvements into classrooms. Whatever the drivers for the global curriculum reforms are, every reform architect is facing the question of how change eventually will happen (Sahlberg, 2009:1)

6.1 Introduction

This is the first of two analysis chapters in the thesis. In here, I frame the findings within the overall mission of education in Tanzania, the main objectives of the TC2005 policy and the key research questions which were:

- 1) What role did education and curriculum stakeholders play in the curriculum reform process and with what effect?
- 2) How relevant and practicable was the new curriculum to students, parents and communities?
- 3) How were different management functions (such as authority, decision making, supervision, control, deployment of resources and monitoring) executed and with what effect to actual classroom teaching?

The analysis in this chapter covers the development of the new curriculum as an agenda of the state and how political and external influence reshaped the outcome. I also show how state control of the TC2005 process as well as the disempowering tendencies towards practitioners and stakeholders can be traced and detected in the adopted strategies. The chapter concludes with a presentation of the intended key philosophical concepts of the policy.

Evidence for this study consisted of transcripts from semi structured interviews that involved heads of primary and secondary schools and teachers' colleges, representatives of international donor institutions,

local non-state institutions and senior ministry of education officials. I also had transcripts from focus group sessions that involved primary and secondary school students, pre-service teacher trainees and members of school management committees. These views and opinions were corroborated with summaries of official documents, in particular education circulars, records of minutes of meetings, various syllabuses and official communication that I managed to access at the Ministry of Education, schools and other institutions. Further, the analysis was enriched by opinions and views of district education officers, district school inspectors, section and unit heads at the Ministry of Education, and non-government institutions. In this chapter and the next one, I use these narratives to present the TC2005 story.

6.2 TC2005: A State and Donor Agenda

The analysis of field data in relation to the conceptualization of TC2005 suggests the existence of continued maintenance of the inherent top-down policy-making structures in Tanzania at a time when the social-economic and political field has undergone dramatic change. This has contributed immensely to the shaping and outcome of TC2005. The analysis also suggests that the TC2005 process had some influence from political heavy weights in the government machinery as well as from global institutions. These three influential factors are discussed in detail in Section 6.2.1, 6.2.2 and 6.2.3.

6.2.1 State influence on TC2005

Data availed through interviewing senior officers at the Ministry of Education and from reviewing official documentation indicated that Government authorities had set the TC2005 agenda before instructing the institution responsible for curriculum development to do the actual writing of the packages that were to be sent to schools. This particular institute is amongst seven semi-autonomous government bodies operating under the auspices of the Ministry of Education. Its major responsibilities are to lead the process of developing and reforming school curriculum, disseminating curriculum documents and carrying out monitoring and evaluation of curriculum (MoEC 1995).

Furthermore, minutes of meetings of the Basic Education Development Committee (BEDC) that I managed to review at the Ministry of Education headquarters showed that there had been a series of discussions from way back in 2003 indicating Government concerns regarding the quality of both primary and secondary education curriculum. Review reports of the Primary Education Development Plan which in 2004 was in its fourth year of implementation identified several success milestones achieved in enhancing equitable access, and in particular, more and improved school infrastructures for the purposes of not only absorbing an increased cohort, but also creating a learner-friendly physical environment. There was also a remarkable improvement in institutional arrangement. However, the reports found out that the intervention fell short in the quality area. A senior Government official (Rampa) pointed this out in a one to one interview session:

... and I hope you can recall that some years back we had the Primary and Secondary Education Development Plans. You perhaps also remember the emphasis that these programmes put on school buildings and provision of books and other teaching/learning materials. It was noted that amongst the weaknesses in our education system were lower pass rates, poor performance in the 3Rs and school leavers unable to be self reliant. (Source Code: Rampa interview, 027-035)

An official from the curriculum institute (Franks) went further to reveal that under this same programme, curriculum was not given high priority, instead more consideration was given to improving access, and hence massive construction of school buildings; presumably due to the country's commitment to the second Millenium Development Goal (MDG2) that proposes education for all by the year 2015 (URT 2001). "Quality was somehow played down, I can say"; the official insisted. The BEDC minutes also showed that at some point in 2004, the curriculum institute was officially tasked by the Government to review the curricula for schools and teachers colleges. To undertake this task, the management of the institute requested for funding for the same, the result of which was the TC2005.

According to the Ministry official (Rampa) the actual process of reviewing the curriculum involved various education stakeholders. He however noted that in the process, they were constrained by time such that they could adhere to what he called ‘conventional principles’ of reforming curricula such as pre-testing the syllabuses before *en-masse* production. Indeed documentary review indicated that there was participation of people out of Government circles during the various discussions at the Ministry, but the lists were comprised of some donor institutions and a few members from some NGOs. For example, in all the attendance lists that I managed to read, there were no representation from any of the institutions with stake in curriculum such as Tanzania Teachers’ Union, Publishers’ Association of Tanzania, and Parents’ Association of Tanzania. Rather surprisingly, even vulnerable groups such as the deaf, the blind and those with albinism were not represented despite the fact that they have registered and well-established national associations.

When interviewing the official from the curriculum institute (Franks), he recalled how the process to produce the new curriculum was initiated:

Franks: Well, I can’t remember all the details but I remember we did a study prior to the review.

Researcher: A comprehensive one?

Franks: Yes a comprehensive one. We wrote a proposal; discussed it and went to the field, collected data, came back and produced a big document; kind of an evaluation document of the country’s curriculum. The findings revealed many areas that needed to be improved. Then the review commenced.

Researcher: How many subjects were touched by this review?

Franks: All the subjects were reviewed and improved on the basis of the ideas we got from the field.

Franks: Yes, I’m talking of improving.

(Source Code: Franks interview, 024-032)

Rampa’s admission that the curriculum writers faced time constraints was an interesting one as my understanding was that the initial planning

process for TC2005 should have allocated time for each targeted activity. Upon enquiring, he gave further admission:

I mean there was not enough time to adhere to the conventional scientific principles of reforming curriculum such as pre-testing or piloting, because there were government pronouncements that we should act immediately. So as government employees, when the bosses instruct, we obey. (Source Code: Rampa, 040-041).

The participant also alleged that for a long time, the office of the minister for education has been allocated to politicians with no background in education, and as such often made decisions skewed more towards political affiliation than professionalism. I later confirmed his allegations through official records. During the field work, the occupier of the said office was a lecturer in development engineering from one of the country's universities. Before him, it was under a forestry university professor. The latter took over from a businessman with a background in public administration as well as long service in the ministry of agriculture. Here, the close link between government interference in an educational process and politics was clearly demonstrated.

After the survey (reported by Franks above), all the subject syllabuses in use then were reviewed. The next stage that was planned was to carry out teacher orientation to enable them to effectively translate the new curriculum in the classrooms. However this way forward never materialised because again, the government intervened by denying funding for this activity. Commenting on this decision, Franks had this to say:

Franks: As I said before, teachers have not been given any INSET on the competency-based approach prescribed in the new curriculum. This is a fact.

Researcher: Why was this?

Franks: Lack of funds. Of course, sometimes I don't believe in lack of funds as a problem. I believe on the fact that many a time, it is a problem of poor prioritising. There are things that the Ministry authorities consider more important than others. That's where the

problem lies. And this I feel, has a very close link with the mass failures that we're now trying to find causes of in the workshop that I'm leading here. The teachers are teaching the way they have been doing for years although the syllabuses are competency-based.
(Source Code: Franks, 085-093)

I interviewed Franks in a workshop venue about 300 miles away from the Ministry of Education headquarters where he was leading a team of experts picked by the government to find the causes of the poor results in the 2010 National Form Four Examination. A point to note here is that Franks' observation on TC2005 funding contradicted Rampa's (a Ministry of Education official) on the same. I recall the latter to have told me earlier that there was no problem with funding at all:

Researcher: Ok, tell me about financing.

Rampa: Basically financing was good. We got funding from the treasury and we made disbursement to the districts, and they in turn disbursed the same to primary schools. For secondary schools, the money was disbursed centrally. (Source Code: Rampa 042-045

The participant (Franks) also gave another incidence regarding government interference in the TC2005 in which two levels of leadership contradicted each other. He said as they embarked on reviewing the curriculum, the then Minister for Education directed that the vocational elective subjects in the old secondary school syllabuses be left out for two main reasons. First, many schools lacked the necessary equipment and utilities, and second there were feelings amongst some students that they were being channelled into vocations that were not of their choices. The Minister had even mentioned this in his Parliamentary Budget Speech (URT/MoEC, 2004) to give it a political backing. To heed the Minister's directive, the curriculum reviewers selected certain topics that they felt were important for inclusion in the core syllabus subjects for TC2005. They completed the task and handed in the new syllabuses to the Ministry of Education for approval. Official Ministry records showed that the new syllabuses were

authorised and disbursed to schools ready for the new academic year in early January 2005. Franks then described the contradiction as follows:

But a year later, another call came in; I think from an authority higher than the Minister that all elective subjects should be brought back. When this was done, the TC2005 syllabuses remained with several repetitions until now. I mean there is repetition of what is done in the core and what is done in the electives; and I'm sure this weakness has not been attended to up to now. (Source Code: Franks, 264-270)

In an informal discussion later, the participant disclosed to me that the call he referred to came from the President's Office; and thus echoing an earlier assertion by Rampa that when the bosses in the government machinery gave orders, one was obliged to obey, lest they face consequences.

6.2.2 State control through textbook vetting

Another strategy that came up rather strongly in the data was state vetting of textbooks for use in schools as part of the TC2005 process. Introduced in 1999 as a way of assuring quality after the introduction of private commercial publishing in school books, (Circular No. 2, 1998), the policy bears witness to a very high level of Government control in a variety of ways. It positioned the Government as the main decision-maker on what textbooks were to be used in schools and teachers' colleges. Section 4.2.2 of the policy states categorically that it is the responsibility of the Ministry to ascertain the quality, relevance and suitability of all educational materials used in schools and teachers' colleges and therefore be accountable to the public (URT/MoEC 1998:9). Given the fact that private commercial publishing was still in its infancy and many local publishers were lacking in skills and experience, having a mechanism to control quality of books seemed to be the right thing to do.

In order to execute the vetting process, the policy called for the establishment of a committee (Education Materials Evaluation Committee)

and emphasised the need for the Government to have authority of decision in the committee by stating that:

The Commissioner for Education should automatically be the chairperson of the Committee. Since the Commissioner for Education has legal powers on educational inputs, the chairpersonship provided by the same would consequently give the committee a higher status and authority.

(URT/MoEC 1998:10)

In the Tanzania education system, the position of Commissioner of Education is the same as the government chief academic officer.

Vetting of textbooks is essentially a very technical activity that call for the evaluators to have knowledge of certain subject areas and to be aware of the basics of what goes on in a publishing house, e.g. from developing a manuscript to editing / proof-reading up to the final stage of binding the loose pages into a book. These skills will enable the vetting officers to effectively evaluate a book from pedagogical and physical perspectives. On the contrary, the policy offered membership of the committee to all heads of departments of the Ministry of Education including the head of the policy and planning department and the legal officer. For the former, official records consulted have shown that the appointing authority was not obliged to pick one with education background for this office although on a few occasions, this has been the case.

Thus between 1999 (when the policy came into force) and 2005, one can argue that the country's textbook market was 'partially' liberalized in that local and international book firms were free to produce but not equally free to sell unless their products were certified by the Government committee. The policy was revisited in 2005 as part of the World Bank conditions as will be described in 6.2.3 below.

6.2.3 Donor influence

Although none of the international institutions readily admitted exerting influence on TC2005, there was evidence to suggest that this was the case. The pressure by the World Bank onto the Government to change Circular No. 2 of 1998 as a condition for the release of SEDP funds is a case in point. In fact the Government had to officially commit itself to meet this and other conditions in a letter Ref. TYC/B/40/121 dated 05/04/2004. The new circular (No. 7 of 2005) was later described by the Bank to have met the required conditions and thus Tranche 3 of USD50 million was released:

The Government has issued Education Circular Number 7 of 2005, replacing Circular No. 2 of 1998 on the approval system of Educational Books and Materials. The current Circular, aims at strengthening the approval system making it more transparent and efficient involving private, public and civil society stakeholders. Further, the Circular re-enforces private book production and publishing which was not the case in the previous years.(World Bank, 2008:6).

Representatives of international institutions described the relationship between their institutions with the Government as that of ‘equals’ and that dialoguing was the main form of interaction between them. Beata, the representative from International Institution 1 said that this was what went on during the TC2005 process. “... and if in this way we’re influencing policy making in the education sector, I don’t know; ” she concluded.

Likewise, a respondent from International Institution 2 described the role of his institution towards the Government as advisory, and that the two parties operated on a partnership basis. He maintained that before any decision was taken, the two parties often held negotiations in settings where the Government took the driving seat. He rated very highly his institution’s massive experience and research skills accumulated over the years from serving in different parts of the world. “Thus if we noted that the Government was intending to move in a certain direction, we’d advise otherwise depending on what we’ve experienced in another country;” he said.

On whether institutions providing more financial support to the government influenced national policy making more than those providing less; the participant from International Institution 1, presumably in defence of her institution, replied in the negative. However, she suggested that there was such a trend with some of the donors. She narrated an incidence she witnessed:

Yesterday I was at the Ministry (of Education), and I met representatives of our colleague institution trying to get hold of the Permanent Secretary to attend their internal meeting. I asked them if it was necessary for their meeting to be attended by the PS and not his representative. So, I can't deny that there are some of us who feel that they give more money and therefore they have the right to compel decision makers to attend their meetings. So it is indeed true that donors with more money may force the government to do things their way. (Source Code: Beata, 065-070).

On his part, the official from the World Bank opined that donor agencies needed to have a say in whatever the Government was doing for accountability purposes arguing that it was immature to say that anyone who gave a lot of money to the Government should care less about what went on in the schools or what kind of policies were being raised.

It's unlikely that any institution that gives a lot of money would not want to have some say in what is happening, what you are doing, what you should do. You know, if I am financing my son's education, and I am paying through my nose, certainly I've the right to check his grades. (Source Code: World Bank Official, 119-124).

Documentary analysis of official documents also provided evidence to support this participant's views. As reported in Chapter 2, TC2005 was an outcome of SEDP whose one objective among others, was to improve quality. The strategies adopted to attain this objective were a review of the school curriculum, and putting in place a capitation grant scheme to make textbooks and sundries readily available to the users (URT/MoEC

2004a). In total, SEDP was budgeted at USD 243 million with donors shouldering much of the cost (World Bank, 2010). The World Bank alone approved USD150 million consisting of a grant of USD 26.4m and a credit of USD 123.6m., i.e. 61.7 per cent of the total SEDP budget. The Government of Tanzania and other development partners contributed an additional USD 93 million.

On the curriculum front, SEDP aimed at reducing the number of secondary school subjects, updating curriculum content, improving textbook quality and delivery, and strengthening teachers' continuous professional development. Schools were to receive a Capitation Grant (CG) equivalent to USD20 per pupil per academic year, forty per cent of which was to be used for procurement of textbooks and other teaching-learning materials from private commercial publishers (REPOA 2012; URT/MoEC 2004; URT/MoEVT 2005; URT/MoEC 2004; URT/MoEC, 1991).

As argued by Campbell-White & Bhatia (1998); Kumssa (1996); Cornia & Helleiner (1994) and Galal *et al* (1994), privatization is a World Bank policy and thus it was not surprising that it frequently occurred in its interaction with the Government. In fact it was categorically stated as one of the conditions that the Borrower (Government of Tanzania) should cause the Curriculum Institute (then the sole textbook provider) to enter into legal agreements (satisfactory to the Bank) with private publishers to take over its existing textbook stock, as well as to disengage from publishing new textbooks for schools. Section 5.02 of the MoU between the Bank and Government of Tanzania gave 90 days for this to be accomplished. Records indicated that the deadline was not met, and the Bank stuck to its word i.e. withholding the funds. Thus instead of the First Tranche of USD50m being disbursed on 30th June, 2004 as agreed, it was honoured on 3rd November 2004 after meeting the condition. (World Bank, 2008)

Here, one sees clearly removal of the right to decision-making from a sovereign state institution and into the hands of a global and foreign financial body, and consequently undermining domestic accountability. As argued by ActionAid (2006), the use of conditions to promote policy

changes has proved to be not only ineffective, but also clumsy and politically inappropriate in bringing about sustainable change.

Such decisions by non-state institutions did not go unnoticed and especially by local non-state institutions with stake in education. During interview sessions with heads of three non-state institutions, a general concern was voiced that in the Tanzania education sector, foreign interests seemed to be given priority over local ones because of the huge financial support that they provided to the Government. The participants claimed to have evidence suggesting that in the TC2005 process for example, local publishing firms were undermined by being prevented from participating as equal competitors in the textbook market in favour of foreign publishing firms. A participant alleged that many projects in education were donor-driven and even the new curriculum itself was donor-given:

I think even the new curriculum was forced upon the Government by these financiers. How come you go to sleep today and the next morning you wake up and you are told the curriculum is being changed! I mean how can one believe that a Government works this way? Here I'm sure was an issue of sweet talk like; "... listen gentleman, you either change your curriculum, and invite our publishing firms to do business here in or we pull out. I mean being a poor person, there is no way you can throw away this opportunity. (Source Code: CEO, Non-State Institution).

6.2.4 Influence from global agenda

It was also alleged that TC2005 was influenced by global developmental agenda in which technology advancement and adoption of a curriculum that met the needs of the learners and their communities were advocated (Marshall 2008; Gough 1999). Documentary evidence indicated that these were echoed in the policy documents. Education Circular No. 2, 2005 for example included new subjects namely Information Technology, Sports and Personality and French as a Foreign Language. The majority of school heads interviewed also felt that TC2005 was deemed necessary for Tanzania's children to be exposed to an education that encompassed

global issues such as advancement in technology and especially the use of the computer and the mobile phone. A primary school head teacher observed:

There are issues of technology as well which have to be considered. An example is the mobile phone and the computer. When I was in school, these things were not there and therefore we never learnt about them. But today, children can find these things in many places and therefore they just have to learn them. The mobile phone for example is available even in this remote village of ours. (Source Code: Mhina at A1Ps2 School 063-066.

The head at B2Ss1 Secondary School had similar views regarding the changing times and the need to have new curricula for schools.

That's why ICT was introduced in primary schools with the new curriculum... I mean social and technological development. The US is technologically developed; ... they're running faster than us and we're trying to catch them up. (Source Code: Mgosi at B2Ss1 School, 129-134)

The principal of Teachers' College A2Tc stated that the changing times have come with indications that certain subjects were considered necessary in the world and thus countries should make sure that they included them in school curricula. She said "Subjects like ICT was necessary in TC2005 because of the development of technology in the world and we did not want to be left behind." She then talked about TC2005 as being tailor-made to address unemployment and hence the inclusion of new subjects namely Sports and Personality as well as Life Skills. After the interview, the principal took me to a classroom within the college campus that had been converted into a 'computer laboratory'. I found a handful of desktop computers in there for the use of the trainees and staff. Given the population of the college, it was obvious that this facility was just not enough.

Thoughts on the relevance of TC2005 to the learners and their communities also featured in the data. Documentary review revealed that TC2005 was intended to attain the aims and objectives set by the Government macro policies which basically supported active, authentic, and engaged learning, leveraging of technology and innovations that would have impact on people's daily living (See Appendix XVIII for a list of some of these policies).

Deliberating on this, a senior Government official I interviewed stressed that their intention was to produce a relevant curriculum; one that was linked to the lives of the people. He mentioned youth unemployment as one of the social ills they intended to address in TC2005. He said in many urban areas in Tanzania, there were thousands of young people on the streets selling mobile phone vouchers, fruits, monkey nuts and the like. "This is a serious problem, and believe me, it is a curriculum problem, because it is creating job seekers rather than job creators," he emphasised. He argued that with this aim in mind, they settled for a *Competency-based Curriculum* that was intended to not only enable recipients to make things, but also to acquire knowledge, skills and attitudes.

In the focus group sessions with students, there were suggestions that some of the content in TC2005 was not relevant. For example complaints were raised that policy makers sometimes did not consider students as the centre-piece of the school curriculum. They said often school curricula included things that were not important or even useful to them. "So they just change and write new books which incorporate these new things and bring them to us" complained Greyson, a primary school pupil at School B1Ps2. The comment was supported by a secondary school student who cited omission of cookery and home science in TC2005. Her reason for suggesting these subjects was that many boys cannot cook and when they went away from their families to work, they got so many health problems because they ended up eating unhealthy food in cheap restaurants.

The voice of local communities in the study was represented by members of four primary school management committees in focus group sessions. These are parents residing within the communities that supplied children to the sampled schools. The general feeling during the discussions was that, after spending some years in primary and secondary schools, the children do not acquire beneficial skills both for themselves and for their communities apart from basic reading, writing and arithmetic. At A2Ps2 Primary School, a member argued that reading, writing and some crude arithmetic were not sufficient skills as the children proved to be unable to fix things. The participant compared TC2005 content with what they did long ago in school. He said, boys did crafts such as woodwork, agriculture and masonry, whereas girls did domestic science which comprised of needlework, laundry, hygiene, weaving and cookery. He suggested these be brought back to school

In this same session, a participant illustrated this weakness using her two boys at home, none of whom, he said, could even sew on a broken shirt button or make a cup of tea, despite being in their final year of primary school. Her suggestion was that the crafts and domestic science subjects needed to be brought back into the curriculum, and should be made compulsory for all students in disregard of sex. “The world has changed and we have girls playing football these days, so they can also do woodwork and masonry;” she insisted.

The school committee chairperson at B2Ps2 elaborated by recalling a public advertisement put up by the local government authorities in the area inviting youths to apply for National Service (military) training opportunities, only to find that many of youths around could not write correct application letters for this purpose. He gave a few more examples of school leavers’ weaknesses as a result of a weak curriculum:

These days, you tell a P7 school leaver to take 1 ml. of poultry medicine and mix it with ml.2 of water to make a concoction for the chicken; they cannot! Yet, these are some of the things we

learnt at school those years. ... we had carpentry, masonry and agriculture classes.

(Source Code: Parents' Focus Group, 089-094).

Comparing TC2005 and what they learnt in the old days, he pointed out that in their P8 year, they were taught how to prepare compost manure and other skills that helped them to be productive after leaving school.

His views were illustrated further by a colleague that children were normally sent to school for a certain span of time for a worthy purpose, and that is to gain skills for a better future. The participant then elaborated on the impact of lack of these skills in her locality:

The main road over there is always busy with buses going to and from the city. When they stop here to pick or drop passengers, you'll see boys and girls running around with baskets full of food items and other things trying to sell to the passengers. Many of these are teenagers with primary school education and who have not been selected to join secondary schools. I'm always asking myself if really this is sustainable employment!

(Source Code: Parents' Focus Group, A2Ps1, 143-148).

At A1Ps1 School, parents also related the youth rural-urban migration in the country as an outcome of an irrelevant curriculum. They stressed that with school leavers having no employable skills in town, the majority would get involved in petty businesses or even illegal activities with the girls often ending up in teenage pregnancies. A parent in the committee also complained of school leavers lacking language competency. He claimed that the children left school with no competency in either Kiswahili (national language) or English. On Kiswahili, he claimed that they would often use slang even in formal settings, whereas for English, they cannot make even a simple sensible sentence. He described the consequences of the latter as follows:

These days how can one get a job even that of a messenger without English? Not possible at all. English has been down-graded to the lowest point and even the teachers themselves can't speak it well. This is unfortunate because the country is currently struggling to strengthen its tourism industry. How can we succeed in this without English?

(Source Code: Parents' Focus Group, 044-051)

A few school heads were quite happy with the way functional skills have been addressed in the new curriculum, and thus claimed that TC2005 was relevant. Teacher Jema (School A1Ps1) singled out the presence of what she called 'currently hot' issues in the world such as entrepreneurship, sports, citizenship and behaviour-building that appear as topics in the TC2005 textbooks. Her views were shared by the deputy head at School A2Ps1 (Mrs Oloo). The latter however cautioned that curriculum relevance was a complex issue that needed to be considered from the perspective of time and culture; meaning that something may be relevant at a certain point in time but irrelevant after a few years.

6.3 Conceptual Mis-interpretation of Curriculum

Policy makers, teachers and students had slightly different meaning of what school curriculum was. Whereas staff at the curriculum institute differentiated a curriculum from a syllabus, teachers, students and the general public considered the subject syllabuses to be 'the curriculum'. While giving an interview to the ruling political party newspaper (HabariLeo 24/10/2013), a senior officer at the curriculum institute was reported to have said that school curriculum was a product of a long and sustainable process that considered the views and opinions of a variety of stakeholders including parents, teachers, students, inspectors, university academic staff, employers, education administrators, policy makers, political parties, religious organisations, and government and non-government organisations. He said that the final document produced from these opinions is a curriculum framework from which different subject syllabuses are produced. Such were the views also expressed by another senior government officer who had also worked with the curriculum

institute before (See Section 6.2.1). The interviewed curriculum institute official however did not clarify whether this is what happened in the TC2005 case and neither did he say what is actually contained in the curriculum framework.

At the Ministry of Education, a respondent informed me that his office had various key functions including approving curricula and syllabi after consultation with the Minister. Clearly, this statement indicates that he considered the two to be different documents, though certainly closely related. Responses from some other senior government officials all along the interview sessions seemed to consider syllabuses as ‘the curriculum’. For example they confined to me that what was sent to schools was the different competency-based subject syllabuses and circulars, and that the National Examination Council had started setting examinations based on the competencies supposedly gained through students’ exposure to these syllabuses.

The controversy of the syllabus as the curriculum was made public in early 2013 when a Member of Parliament from the Opposition accused the Minister of Education of running the ministry activities without an official curriculum (Tanzania Parliament website). In response, the accused Minister promised to present the curriculum to the august house which he did a few days later. The debate was so controversial that while it was ongoing, the head of the curriculum institute resigned, a decision translated by participants of the debate as a confirmation that the country had no official curriculum. . Reacting to what was presented in the Parliament by the Minister, the law maker who raised the issue lamented that they were syllabuses and not the curriculum; and that school curriculum should be accessible to practitioners and the general public. During the fieldwork, I also visited the curriculum institute in person and school inspection offices to request for a copy of the new curriculum but was not provided with one. Classroom teachers also understood the syllabus to be the curriculum. For example when talking of their orientation in readiness for TC2005, they only confined themselves to discussing the various subject syllabuses provided by the trainers. As for students, their general understanding of

curriculum was what was contained in the textbooks. My suggestion here is that the syllabuses were documents meant for teachers' consultation and out of bound for students.

6.4 Disempowering of Practitioners and Other Stakeholders

All the classroom teachers contacted during the field work complained that they were not involved in the TC2005 process. As will be detailed in Chapter 7, this implied that TC2005 missed the commitment of those who were supposed to implement it.

Interviews conducted to non-state institutions supporting education in the country portrayed a general feeling of disenchantment for being side-lined in the TC2005 process. Hariet from one of these institutions felt that they were not invited to participate in the TC2005 process because the Government did not consider them worthy. The participant explained how they came to know about the new curriculum and speculated on the reasons for their non-involvement:

Researcher: Ok, now let's talk about the TC2005 reform. What has been your role in this process?

Hariet: Nothing, to be honest. We just heard that there was to be a reform.

Researcher: You just heard about it?

Hariet: That's right; the thing just emerged from nowhere.

Researcher: You're saying it appeared from nowhere; aren't you?

Hariet: Yes, because we didn't know when and who was doing what, and then suddenly we saw these changes on the ground. How do you explain that?

Researcher: So going back to the question: You're telling me that you have not been involved in the curriculum reform process in 2005.

Hariet: Completely not involved.

Researcher: Why do you think you were not involved?

Hariet: Lack of recognition; or rather we're seen as not worthy. What else can I say?

Researcher: Which one in particular between the two?

Hariet: Both of them. There is a time somebody recognizes neither your presence nor your worthy. You're just of no value to them.
(Source Code: Non-state institution Interview 048-065)

She recalled an incidence just a few days before our interview to illustrate how the Government often carried out its functions without involving stakeholders. As she was driving one afternoon, a member of her organization informed her to get hold of a certain daily newspaper. "There is an advert by the Treasury in there; they're buying textbooks for the new curriculum;" the caller said. Hariet was surprised because she had never heard of the Treasury buying textbooks for schools. She felt that if indeed this was true, then it was against existing Government policy. She contacted other members of her organisation none of whom was aware of the information. The participant pointed out that several other institutions were also excluded and gave an example of the Book Writers Association of Tanzania which she said had very good book writers. She suggested that the Government need to involve institutions even if they appeared critical towards it.

Even HakiElimu (an NGO); just call them and sit down with them. These are people who are always driving around the country to evaluate what is going on out there. While they're doing so; the Ministry officials are sitting in their air conditioned offices in the city. Call them because they know a lot of things.

'HakiElimu' is a civil society organization that had once clashed with the Government due to its strong criticism of the way education policies were being implemented in the country (Africa News, 2008). A Government minister responsible for social development, gender and children claimed that the NGO was caricaturing whatever was done in the education sector and threatened to revoke its operating licence. The Executive Secretary of another non-state local institution reported that they were not invited to take part in the TC2005, and wished they were because they would have made an impact. He said they had projections in planned for the old

curriculum, and would have shared them with the Government given the opportunity.

But the director of another non-state institution informed that they participated in TC2005 conceptualization as members of the Quality Technical Working Group. He said his firm was a member of the Tanzania Education Network (TENMET) which he claimed commanded a great respect from the government.

In focus group sessions, students voiced on the need for policymakers to consider them as clients who should be consulted on what needs to be in the school curriculum. They argued that this was important as they were the ones affected most by school curricula. They compared the making of school curriculum with managing a business where one has to find out the needs of the clientele. “These days there are some topics in the books that we’re just being forced to learn;” complained Monica, a pupil at B2Ss1 School. At A1Ss1 secondary school, students expressed their dissatisfaction with the serious lack of resources especially for the teaching of Physics, Chemistry and Biology subjects.

You see in schools, we don’t do practical sessions because there are no labs although we like these subjects and we have the ability. In science practical sessions, the examiner observes how students perform and award them accordingly. In the ward schools we are given alternative written exams instead. This is neither right nor fair. In fact the alternative written exams are far more difficult than the practical ones. (Source Code: Students Focus Group, at A1SS1, 054-060)

This particular school (A1Ss1) is a community secondary school located in a rural community about 30 miles from the nearest township. The only access to it was a gravel road that was impassable during the rainy season. To emphasise their dissatisfaction, they felt it was unfair to victimise rural schools by providing them with less resources compared to those in urban areas, and at the end of the year require them to sit for the same final examination. So they came up with an idea:

First of all, I would request the Minister of Education to make sure that at the end of the 4th or 6th year, community secondary school students are given a different (national) examination from the one done by students in other schools. Because it is not fair to give us the same examination with Tambaza or Jangwani (schools in the city) students whereas we have been studying in very different conditions?

(Source Code: Students Focus Group, 072-75)

6.5. Discussion

A picture of an education and curriculum system highly controlled from the centre emerges from the data given in this analysis. Government officials decided that it was time to review the school curriculum eight years after the last curriculum review (1996). Records revealed that between 1961 and 2005, the exercise of reviewing school curriculum was carried out five times. As pointed out by Levin (2006:10-11), there are various driving forces that compel governments to revisit their school curricula:

Government agendas are certainly shaped in part by political commitments, party platforms, and the views of key political leaders. Governments do try to keep a focus on meeting the commitments they made when elected.

The election manifesto of the ruling party in Tanzania (CCM) Section 8C (i) reports on successes achieved in the education sector. Amongst them are the introduction of the PEDP and SEDP (CCM 2005). The TC2005 was conceived and carried out within the context of these programmes.

Levin (2006:11) also postulates that curriculum policies can be influenced, often to a much greater extent, by external political pressures, changing circumstances, unexpected events, and crises. These may comprise of a variety of requests such as repealing some other legislations, doing or stopping things in one way and switching to a different way, increasing or decreasing funding, passing legislation and so on. In the TC2005 case, external pressure from donors came in the form of conditions for the

release of funding from the World Bank which committed the largest amount of funding for the secondary school programme.

According to Samoff & Carrol (2003), Tanzania had a long relationship with the World Bank as it was the first African country to be provided with IDA funding of USD4.6 million in 1963 for secondary education. Samoff & Carrol (op.cit) record that the Bank did advise review of the Tanzania secondary school curriculum in 1979 to equip school leavers with skills to enable them participate in the building of a strong economy. To what extent this review was successful in attaining this 'rather generalised' objective was out of the focus of this study.

As pointed out earlier, World Bank conditions compelled the Tanzania school curriculum to be reviewed and the textbook sub-sector to be privatised. Non-state institutions latter claimed that this had a negative impact on local publishing as they were not able to compete on an equal basis with international publishing conglomerates in the highly competitive book market. In an attempt to defend the Bank, a former staffer (in Washington) explicitly reveals that prescribing policies was indeed what they used to do:

Gone are the glorious days when the World Bank was merrily prescribing policies and lending, rather than stirring controversies. Today, some think it has become the satanic tool of neo-colonialism while others complain that it is plainly ineffective. Bank officers wonder how it can be both at the same time. These days, being a multi-lateral Bank means that you are criticised, no matter what you do or don't do.

(Castro, 2002:288)

The World Bank staffer I interviewed in Tanzania during my field work also justified his institution's conditions. He maintained that the Bank had the right to do so as it provided more money; and thus obliged to see what the government was doing. When asked about prohibiting a national institution to publish textbooks and instead handing over the function to private

firmssome of which lacked the necessary skills in the job, he said “I think that’s a fantastic decision as done in other developed countries.”

At this point, the participant was rationalizing the right to exert influence on the on national policy-making procedures. However, he needed to be reminded that Tanzania was a not a developed country and that the private sector was not that much developed. Moreover, there were negative consequences on the sector that were likely to occur. What works well in country X may not necessarily do so in country Y.

In the process of implementing a new curriculum, teachers are supposed to adopt new ideologies to be able to induce change in the learners. This strains them and especially in the case of huge changes that call for total shift in beliefs and practices. If they are highly controlled, their motivation, commitment and ownership of the change are substantially reduced. As professionals, teachers deserve to be allowed to have their vision and self-direction in order to produce knowledge and find out what their students need. This is an empowered vision of their profession that enables them to become classroom-level curriculum developers. Furthermore, getting teachers involved in the reform process equips them with skills required by the innovation and enhances the likelihood that the reform will be adapted to local circumstances.

For other curriculum stakeholders from non-government sectors, participation in the curriculum process is a development paradigm shift from the bygone era when the government used to do everything for its people. It enhances accountability, transparency, and the rule of law. On this basis, it has become a prerequisite for donor institutions. As pointed out by Winton (2010:69):

Policy is a rational process of decision-making by elected officials and policy experts (Stone, 2002). Their decisions are codified for others to implement and evaluations of the degree and success of implementation follow. Citizens may be invited to participate in government decision-making processes before final decisions are made or during evaluations.

Stakeholder participation engages them in the policy processes as a transformative activity that enhances democracy. Democracy being a contested concept, requires public policies to be critiqued by citizens to reassess them based on new information and experiences. Critique must include the processes of policymaking, the ends and decisions. By denying stakeholders to participate fully, this opportunity is denied, and one may therefore question the level of democracy being practiced in the society. As field evidence suggested very minimal involvement of teachers and the civil society in TC2005, it implies that there were no competing values except those of the Government.

Ideally, the making of a school curriculum is a political process in that the presence of competing values raises contestation and conflict regarding the basis of deciding what to teach. And this has a bearing on the curriculum that is finally produced as some values would certainly be left out.

Theorists define curriculum depending on their philosophical stances that lie along a continuum from curriculum as prescription of contents to a holistic view that includes the socio-political influences on schooling. Briefly a curriculum is supposed to define learning outcomes, assessment methods including instruments, bench-marking of assessment criteria as well as the criteria. It also has to define the courses to be taken by students, as well as the reference materials to be used by the teachers (Schiro 2013, Flinders & Thornton 2004, Tyler 1971). This brings us to the question of curriculum models adopted in TC2005 (See Chapter 3 for details).

An official who participated in the TC2005 process had said earlier on that their desired end-point was a competency-based curriculum to enable school leavers 'do things'. My belief was that based on this goal, they then worked backwards to select what to teach and how and thus completed the format displayed later in this section. Literature on curriculum models refers to this as 'outcomes-based' approach to curriculum making (Ross, 2012, Anderson 2001; Malan, 2000; Spady, 1996, Spady, 1994). Structurally, this approach is a modification of the Product model also known as behavioural objectives model first theorised by Ralph Tyler and

Benjamin Bloom. The main interest of the model being what the curriculum will produce.

In as far as curriculum definition is concerned in the TC2005 case, data availed suggested that the most familiar documents in school settings in Tanzania were the subject syllabuses supplied by the government. In fact pupils in schools did not seem to have anything to do with syllabuses at all; at most they talked of curriculum as the contents of the textbooks indicating that these were documents made for the teachers. A physical check of the prelims of sampled subject syllabuses revealed that they are copyright materials of the Ministry of Education but written by the curriculum institute. They all displayed a uniform format for the content as shown here-under:

Topic	Sub-topic	Specific objectives	Teaching learning strategies	Teaching learning materials	Assessment	Number of periods
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The format clearly demonstrates the existence of what is known in other circles as ‘provider capture’ (Donnelly, 2000) in the teaching-learning process where all elements of the teaching-learning process is being controlled, that is ‘what’ (topics and subtopics), ‘why’ (specific objectives), ‘how’ (teaching learning strategies, ‘with what resources’ (teaching - learning materials). In this way, teachers are assured of having no decision of their own at all except following government prescriptions.

Kennedy (1996) argues that control of the ‘what’ and ‘how’ of school curriculum guarantees the state of what values are passed to the next generations. More often, policy makers would tend to think that centralised control would serve them best. However this does not seem to be the case as it negatively affects successful implementation of the change in that it limits teachers from being creative and innovative. According to Kennedy (1996:78), creativity and innovation are important attributes if a country wishes to see genuine thinkers coming out of their schools. Moreover, strict state control is said to play down the critical question of ‘why having school’ and instead the priority becomes how

school are performing in the league table of government standards. John Stuart Mill - a Scottish political economist (quoted in Donnelly 2000:2) argued that centrally mandated curricula can easily be co-opted by whoever is in control at the time to further their own ends.

A general State education is a mere contrivance for moulding people to be exactly like one another: and as the mould in which it casts them is that which pleases the predominant power in the government ... in proportion as it is efficient and successful, it establishes a despotism over the mind...

In TC2005, textbooks were also centrally controlled; and as noted elsewhere, these artefacts can serve as instruments of ideologies in history (Apple & Christian, 1991; Apple, 1990, Thiongo 1986). Ideology is how people view the world. It is ideas, practices, rituals and representations taken to be right in society. It comprises of customs, beliefs and values regarded positively by everybody. It functions as a system carrying meanings and ideas that structure the unconscious of students. Given that societies are governed by politics, and politics is about power, the ideas and cultures of the dominant can easily find their way in school books and in this way passed down to the learners. A survey of textbooks used in conflict zones have actually confirmed this to be true. Reference can be made to the Middle East (in Abu-Saad, 2007; Bar-Tala and Teichman 2005); the Basque Region (in Collado and Atxurra 2000), South Africa (in Engelbrecht 2005), Korea and Japan (in Lee 2007; Cooley, 2001) and Eastern Europe and Russia (in Lisovskaya and Karpov 2007).

A study I conducted on a primary school language textbook in Tanzania showed how the use of socialist political phraseology that made fun of capitalism ideas disappeared gradually as the country's socialist policies crumbled in the mid-1980s (Kopweh, 2007). It can thus be argued that state control was aimed at passing the values cherished by the policymakers to the children all over the country. In fact a government document that I came across during the fieldwork indicated that there was a move to introduce further control in textbooks by reverting to a single textbook use in schools as was the case in the 1970s and 1980s because the

Government alleged that multiple textbooks contributed to lack of uniformity in classroom teaching.

6.6 Chapter Summary

This chapter presented an analysis of the data related to the issue of how the TC2005 policy text was produced. The discussion centred mainly on three main findings namely state control of the process that produced heavy overtones of state interests in the ensuing curriculum, conceptual mis-interpretation of what curriculum is, and the disempowering of practitioners that was a result the policymakers not involving them in the process. Chapter 7 presents the enactment of the Tanzania curriculum policy - 2005.

CHAPTER SEVEN

ENACTMENT OF THE TANZANIA CURRICULUM POLICY - 2005

7.1 Introduction

This is the second analysis chapter of the data in which I look at the way TC2005 was enacted. Herein, I cover two major themes that emerged from the field data. The first is professionalism and professional identity of the teaching force; and the second is their autonomy. Again as pointed out in the previous chapter, in order to validate the interpretations that I make, I refer to the experiences of the participants in the schools, communities, education offices, non-state institutions, and international institutions during the field work (Refer to Chapter 5 Tables 5.1 and 5.2). Across the two major themes, the function of making decisions came out but in conflicting relationship with state machinery. In professionalism and professional identity, the conflict was on teachers' ineffectiveness in making decision on curriculum content, curriculum delivery, as well as on deployment of material and human resources. Regarding teacher autonomy, I pay attention to capacity building mechanisms, the voice of the teachers as provided in the TC2005 policy, elements of exclusion in existing policies and teachers' conceptualization of curriculum and change.

7.2 Teachers' Professionalism and Professional Identity

School heads are curriculum leaders (Handler, 2010; Spillane 2006; York-Barr & Duke 2004). In this capacity, they *plan, organize, lead* and *monitor* activities at school. Planning provides a sense of direction and how to get 'there', whereas organising involves designing structures to implement what has been planned (Jones, 2010). In the leadership capacity, school heads are expected to guide, influence, facilitate, collaborate and actuate. They are also obliged to carry out continuous monitoring so as to establish whether planned goals are being achieved. These are complex tasks that call for support from others as well as the need to have knowledge of group dynamics. As the main activities in school are centred

on and around the formal / official curriculum, the tasks delineated here-above are therefore curriculum decisions. In this study, field data uncovered four kinds of curriculum decisions made by school heads in their capacity as professionals namely (i) what to teach, (ii) how to teach, (iii) deployment of teaching - learning resources and (iv) deployment of teaching staff.

7.2.1 What and how to teach

All the 12 heads of schools (8 primary and 3 secondary schools and 1 teachers' college) who participated in the study described their key routine function as involving the making of decisions about staffing, supervising classroom teaching, timetabling, and provision and use of teaching-learning materials and facilities. As pointed above, these are curriculum decisions as they focus on *what* is being taught, *who* is teaching it, *how*, *when*, *where*, and with *what* resources. The opinions of the school heads on this were substantiated by an official document of the Ministry of Education and Vocational Training for guiding the running of school (URT/MoEVT 2013:4-5) The document delineated six functions of school heads and even allocated time to be spent on each one of them in a school year as given in Table 7.1.

Table 7.1: Time allocation for effective school headship

SN	School heads functions	Hours in acad. year (est.)	Time %age
1	Managing teaching activities	620.8	40
2	Managing teachers and non-teaching staff	310.4	20
3	Managing finance and human resources	232.8	15
4	Managing students	155.2	10
5	Managing school-community relationship	155.2	10
6	Managing extra-curriculum activities	77.6	5
Total		1552	100

Source: Ministry of Education and Vocational Training, 2013.

The table indicates that school heads in Tanzania are appointed to 'manage' the various aspects of schooling; and one wonders when and how they carry out other roles in their capacity as pedagogical leaders,

specifically, the instructional and transformational roles as described (Stronge (2007) and Marks & Printy 2003).

During the interviews, the school heads described a state of powerlessness in deciding the content to be taught and the methods to be used for delivery as these were prescribed in the various TC2005 subject syllabuses and other official documents. A total of 9 school heads reported that in as far as the new curriculum was concerned, their staff followed the Government-given instructions regarding content and teaching - learning approaches; and they were therefore required to over-see this. A deputy school head at A2Ps1 Primary School summarised what she routinely did at her school thus:

As head, I receive what is to be taught from the Ministry of Education and Vocational Training. Regarding how to teach, the respective syllabus for each subject often gives instructions. (Source Code: Mrs Oloo, 024-026).

Her colleague from School A1Ps2 in another district in the region concurred, and went on to emphasise the authority of the Government syllabuses and how these documents have managed to incapacitate and stifle their professional status and identity:

To be honest, the head teacher does not decide what to teach; because we have the subject syllabi for all the subjects from the Ministry of Education. We're supposed to follow these as they are. The syllabi also give suggestions on how the topics should be taught. We follow these suggestions, but of course we can change them slightly to suit our environment. (Source Code: Mhina at A1Ps2 School, 043-46).

Similar were the views of the principal of the only teacher training college (A2Tc1) involved in the study. She stated that she and her staff were implementing TC2005 as per Ministry of Education and Vocational Training instructions, and that any deviation there-from would only be possible if they identified something seriously wrong in the syllabuses.

It appeared to me that this was an unquestionable loyalty to the Government (official) curriculum instructions, and that this thinking was so entrenched in the school system to the extent of being considered ‘the normal’ way of doing school business. “We *normally* do things as stipulated in the syllabus; questions of deciding what to teach do not therefore arise.” Said the school head at A2Ps2 school (Source Code: *Jennifer 015-017*). The curriculum documents consulted had ample evidence to support these views. Table 7.2 presents an extract from a syllabus of one TC2005 subject whose format is adopted for all primary, secondary schools, and teachers’ college subjects. A few more extracts for other subjects are given in the thesis as Appendix XV.

As it can be noted from Table 7.2, the columns specify the content in terms of topics, sub-topics and the specific objectives to be attained. The approach for delivery is also given as teaching and learning strategies, the materials to be used, and assessment. The Government has even allocated how long each topic and subtopic should take.

Table 7.2: Sample extracts of TC2005 Mathematics syllabus topic format

Topics	Sub-topics	Specific objectives	T/L strategies	Resources	Assessment	Periods
Mathematics for Form 1 (S1) Students) Topic 2.0, Subtopic 2.1						
Fractions	Proper, improper and mixed number	Student should be able to describe a fraction, and make a distinction between improper fractions and whole numbers	The teacher to use familiar examples to describe fractions The student to discuss other familiar examples of fractions	Oranges, paper and cards	Is the student able to describe a fraction? Can they distinguish between proper, improper and mixed numbers?	3

Source: Ministry of Education and Culture, 2005a.

There were also instructions from the Government in the form of education circulars regarding delivery of TC2005. They included instructions on what books to use, how to test, and what to do with students who underperform. Table 7.3 shows a summary of some of the circulars and why they were sent to schools.

Table 7.3: Sample of Government circulars with instructions on TC2005

Circular		Aims
Number	Reference	
Education Circular No. 6 of 2011	ED/OKE/NYE/V.1/06	Specifying which 'type' of testing are permitted in schools and banning weekly and monthly tests as well as inter-school competition tests
Education Circular No. 3 of 2010	ED/OKE/NYK/2010/3 01/03/10	Instructing school heads on what to do with students who fail the Form 2 examinations
Education Circular No. 2 of 2010	ED/OKE/NYK/2010/2 22/02/10	Introducing the use of 2 textbooks instead of unlimited multiple-textbook system.
	DA.84/361/01A/100 25/04/2008	Introducing English Literature set books for secondary school to be examined nationally between 2009 and 2011
Education Circular No. 1 of 2006	ED/OK/C.2/4/V/1 01/04/06	Review of secondary education curriculum to reverse a previous decision that integrated Physics and Chemistry as a single subject in TC2005
Education Circular No. 2 of 2006	ED/OK/C.2/4/V/2 04/04/06	Re-introduction of primary school History, Geography and Civics as separate subjects rather than as a single subject (Social Studies) as it was done in TC2005
Education Circular No. 2 of 2005	ED/OK/C.2/4/IV/2 13/05/05	Introduction of TC2005 with new subjects i.e. French, ICT and Sport/Personality. The new curriculum was to begin in Std. 1, 3 and 5. Std 4, 6 and 7 were to continue with 1997 curriculum.

Source: Ministry of Education and Vocational Training records

Of particular interest were Circular No. 1 of 2006 (ED/OK/C.2/4/V/1) and Circular No. 2 of 2006 (ED/OK/C.2/4/V/2). These were written in April 2006, hardly a year after TC2005 was launched. Both circulars overruled integration of subjects in secondary and primary schools respectively, and stated that this Government decision was in response to complaints from the general public.

This Government change of mind concurs with a participant's opinions in Chapter 6 (Section 6.2.2) that suggested politicking to have played part in the TC2005 process and in particular on the integration of subjects. In November 2005, a new President assumed office in Tanzania after winning the general election; and soon thereafter paid visits to various Government ministries. At the Ministry of Education, official minutes of the management showed that among other things, the President raised his concerns with the integration of subjects in TC2005. Note should be made here that his visit was carried out when TC2005 had already been in use for one whole year. As expounded by Levin (2007:8), more often Government functions occur in the shadow of elections; and that the major function of an elected Government is to improve its prospects of being re-elected next time.

The school heads' interviews also suggested that a competitive examination system reinforced the Government curriculum prescriptions. For instance, the head of A1Ps2 and B1Ps1 primary schools reiterated the need to adhere to the syllabuses because at the end of the P7 year, the questions in the national primary school leaving examination were set from the various syllabus topics. Moreover, school inspectors are reported to have insisted that syllabus instructions be followed almost 'verbatim'; and in cases where teachers had no way but to deviate for some reason, an explanation had to be given whenever they visited.

Amongst the school heads, there were a few voices (heads at A2SS1 and B2Ss1 and deputy head at A2Ps1) that seemed unwilling to accept this inspectors' approach to curriculum implementation. They argued that although they were required to teach according to the syllabus, they also needed to take cognizance of the existing school environment. They felt that at times they had to do 'unintentional' deviation from the formal curriculum instructions by way of improvisation in situations where the prescribed teaching materials were not available. The deputy head at A2PS1 described this as 'a change done for a very good purpose.' She went on to elaborate:

Researcher: Are you saying the inspectors want the syllabuses to be followed verbatim?

Mrs Oloo: The answer is 'yes' with a good number of them.

Researcher: In your view, is this attitude ok?

Mrs Oloo: Definitely no; because the syllabuses are written by human beings like us. That means they're likely to contain errors of thinking or judgement. So I think we should be allowed to change things here and there if we need to because of our teaching environment.

(Source Code: Mrs Oloo, 030-035).

I presumed that one explanation for these 'lone' voices was their higher level of education and location of their schools. The deputy head at A2Ps1 was a degree holder and her head possessed a Masters Degree in Education. The two other heads were heading secondary schools and were university graduates. In Tanzania, a minimum primary school teacher qualification is a Grade IIIA Certificate offered to lower secondary school leavers with 2 years of teacher training. The three schools were all located in semi-urban settings and thus teachers were likely to be more informed compared to their colleagues in the rural locations. That higher education makes a person more confident and thus able to challenge an authority for something that is professionally correct is undoubted. Further, there is ample evidence to indicate that being posted in a rural school especially in developing countries implies isolation, long distance, and remoteness (Lingam, 2012, Eppley, 2009; Baills, & Rossi 2001, Bauch, 2001)

7.2.2 Deployment of resources

School heads' interviews also reported on the existence of two parallel Government mechanisms for the provision of resources to support curriculum implementation in the country. One involved a direct provision of materials from the Central Government through Local Government structures. In the primary schools visited, I was shown various plastic models for the teaching of primary science and globes used in the teaching of Geography and History. These were procured centrally and then distributed to schools. Mechanism two involved the provision of funds

through Capitation Grant (CG) to allow schools buy their own textbooks, sundries and to carry out minor infrastructure repair and administration expenses. This money was paid directly into school bank accounts and was calculated at USD20 and USD10 (local currency equivalent) per secondary and primary school students per year respectively. The positive side of the CG system according to the school heads was that although it did not end the problem of lack of resources in schools completely, it alleviated it substantially.

The central-provision system demonstrated two major weaknesses. First was the powerlessness of school heads and their management committees in deciding their priority school requirements. In such a situation, they only had to accept whatever the Government brought into their schools. Second was the failure of the Government to consider the physical and environmental factors that existed in schools and in particular those in rural locations. For example, a Ministry official (Franks) in a visit to upcountry witnessed a distribution problem that he described as follows:

Franks: The other thing is that distance from town also affects other things like availability of books and other materials. For example recently the Ministry (of Education) distributed science books to schools, but when we were travelling around, we found them piled up in the regional education offices.

Researcher: This sounds interesting!

Franks: It does yes. They were piled at regional offices waiting to be sent to the districts and then to schools. It certainly is a delivery problem caused by distance and other factors such as bad roads and lack of trucks. (Source Code: Franks, Interview data, 136-143).

The result of weaknesses was not only delays, but also total lack of teaching-learning resources in some schools prompting some heads to query why TC2005 was launched when preparations were incomplete. The deputy head at B2Ps1 Primary School for example cited absence of laboratory and science equipment in a community secondary school just a few minutes' walk from his school. He claimed that the teaching of science subjects in this school was 'de-motivating' to students because they did

not carry out practical experiments and had even no knowledge of any chemicals.

They even don't know how to test acidity or alkalinity using litmus papers. They complete their four years without seeing how a Bunsen burner looks. This is the situation Mr Kopweh. You have been out of the country for sometime; and I suggest you take time to know the inside of these schools. But then these are the schools from where we get teacher trainees who will later teach in our schools. (Source Code: Sabuni at B2Ps2 School, 105-110).

In one of the primary schools visited, I learnt that for six years, the teachers have been teaching Civics, History and Geography without the requisite teaching manuals supposed to be provided by the National Curriculum Institute. Some materials were received two days before my arrival at this particular school. During the interview, the school head imagined how schools in typical rural locations coped with the situation if he (in a semi-urban school) received these materials six years after TC2005 was launched.

The school heads also described how powerless they were regarding procurement of materials through the Capitation Grant mechanism as a result of the strict formula devised by the Government on the use of the funds. The formula (presented in Table 7.4) had to be used by all schools in the country with serious consequences for school heads who defaulted.

Table 7.4: Government formula for use of Capitation Grant funds

Description of use	Amount if per cent
Books, teachers' guides and other reading materials	40
Stationery and sundries	20
Facility repairs	20
Tests and examination expenses	10
Administration	10

Source: Manara and Mwombela, 2012.

The head at B1Ps2 Primary School faulted the logic of the CG formula in that it was based only on one criterion - number of registered students,

and thus schools with more students received more money for its activities. He said this was unjustified as other costs in the CG formula had nothing to do with the number of enrolled students and thus uniform allocation was not appropriate:

If I have fewer children and my three classrooms are damaged by heavy rains, while a neighbouring school has more children but its buildings are intact after the same heavy rains, logic dictates that I should receive more money, shouldn't I? (Source Code: Innocent at B1Ps2 School, 228-239)

His colleague at B2Ps2 Primary School gave a more detailed illustration of the formula and how it has proved inadequate in meeting their textbook needs. For example in 2009/10, his school received a total of Tsh.1, 902,910.24 (USD 1,270) as CG, and using the cheapest market price (estimated) of a textbook in the country (Tsh. 5,000 or USD 3.00), he calculated how many books they were able to buy:

The formula given is that 40 per cent should go for textbooks. This amounts to Tsh. 785,124.37. Now this is very little compared to our needs. With this amount, we could buy only 157 books for all subjects; and if we divide these equally amongst the 11 primary school subjects, each subject gets 14 books. That is 14 books for English, 14 for Mathematics etc. The school has 7 classes; that means each class gets 2 new books. (Source Code: James at B2Ps2 School, 231-235)

The absence of bookshops in rural areas and unavailability of the prescribed titles also made it difficult for schools to replenish their teaching material stocks using the CG. A secondary school head who lived in town fifty miles away from his rural school, and commuted by public buses daily, gave his own version of the CG experience. In the city, occasionally he would visit the various bookshops to find out if any one of them stocked what he needed, but often to no avail. Thus his urban-dweller status notwithstanding, his school had serious shortages. For example in the teaching of Literature in English (his area of specialisation), there were only 5 readers for 90 students. So what he used to do was to

distribute the few books to the students who can read well prior to the sessions so that they can at least, contribute in the discussion during the lessons. He concluded that “The rest of the students will remain passive listeners certainly.” (Source Code: *Mgosi at BsSs1 School, 160*)

Apart from the Central Government determining the use of the CG use in schools, top-down bureaucratic tendencies at the district level were also raised as factors that limited school heads’ capacity to decide. Tinno, the head at B1Ps2 Primary School narrated how schools in his location were instructed by the district education officers to buy books from two identified publishers; a move contrary to the then existing policy that allowed schools to buy from any publisher they felt had suitable titles.

The school heads further informed that disbursement of CG funds to schools was more often delayed and at times no communication was made to school for such delays. For instance, no funds were credited into Primary B2Ps2 bank account since January 2011, and neither the head nor his staff knew the reasons for this. Consequently, no books were procured for the new school year, and also there was no money for school-based tests, building maintenance and for buying lesson planning booklets, manila sheets and other sundries. There was a similar case at B2Ps1 School, although some funds came in the account early February 2011, but with no accompanying instructions. The school was not able to use this money immediately as they had to wait for the paperwork with instructions from the Government.

The demand for textbooks as raised by the school heads and teachers during the fieldwork suggested that they played a very important role in the country’s school system. Thus the impact caused by their insufficiency, total lack, or even delay in some schools was not difficult to discern within the data:

And do you know what this delay means! It means last year’s pupils did not get the knowledge specified in the syllabus. For example, one of the topics in the Civics Syllabus is to teach the organization structure of the regional administration in Tanzania. Where could

we have got it from in such a rural district like ours! (Source Code: Sabuni at B2Ps1 School, 040-0431)

“This situation makes it difficult for the pupils to grow up as participants in a teaching - learning setting;” Teacher Sabuni concluded.

At the surface, the above observations may paint a positive picture of pedagogical efficacy in schools and classrooms where textbooks were available. However, further comments from the participants suggested that textbook availability was not the only variable leading to successful teaching and learning in schools. There were schools where poor quality of some of the titles left much to be desired and considered a hindrance to effective TC2005 interpretation. A school head for example pointed out lack of consonance between the contents of some textbooks and the syllabus. “Many a time, we have to consult the old books that we used when I went to school so many years ago.” He complained.

At B1Ps1 School, a teacher brought to the school head’s attention that a certain topic in a Kiswahili textbook selected by the school for use was totally different from what was in the syllabus. The head and her teacher sat down together, discussed the matter and decided that the teacher should base her teaching on the subject syllabus and not on the book. They felt that the author did not comprehend what was required of the syllabus. Later, the school head decided to switch to a textbook from a different publishing company. Comments were also made by classroom teachers on weaknesses of some of the textbooks. Out of the 25 teachers that responded to open-ended questions in the Likert scale questionnaire, 9 identified poor authorship skills in the textbooks they were using. They blamed the publishing companies for employing the services of authors with no teaching expertise.

Few as these teachers appeared to be, their views corroborated the evidence from official documents consulted at the Ministry of Education, and especially minutes of the Education Materials Evaluation Committee (EMAC). For example, records of EMAC meeting held between 24th and 28th November 2009 indicated a total of 50 textbooks of different subjects on

the agenda. Out of these, 8 were totally rejected as unsuitable for school use and the remaining 42 were given 'Conditional Approval'. The Manual of Procedures used by the committee in approving books (Section 6.6.2) defines Conditional Approval as follows:

If a title is found to contain only minor faults, it may be approved subject to certain conditions, e.g. that certain illustrations are removed or changed or that certain textual corrections are made. In this case a copy of the finished book should be submitted to the committee as proof that the changes have been made. If the changes have been made satisfactorily, the publisher will be notified of approval (MoEC, 1999:14)

The minutes cited strengths and weaknesses of each title discussed, and the major weaknesses in the conditionally approved titles included poor sentence structure, inclusion of irrelevant content, unclear illustrations, lack of enjoyment index, ambiguous questions, wrong concepts, inconsideration of cross-cutting issues, and editorial errors. Samples of EMAC reports are provided in the thesis as Appendix XIV.

As described in the circulars that institutionalised vetting of textbooks, (MoEC 1999; MoEVT 2005), the EMAC approval procedures involved the use of two major criteria namely Pedagogical Quality Standards (PQS) and Design Quality Standards (DQS). Within PQS were included conformity to the syllabus, organisation of the content, conformity to socio-cultural values, integration of cross-cutting issues, adaptability to local and global settings and relevance to learner's age and interests. Others criteria were the use of quality illustrations, presence of enjoyment index, assessment of learners' understanding, and language and communication aspects. The physical features and a general anatomy of the book including binding, size, dimension and quality of print and typeface were included in the PDS criterion. A textbook that was conditionally approved would be formally approved and certified for use in schools after the identified flaws have been corrected to the satisfaction of the Committee. A rather general assumption was that most of the titles in the schools visited had gone through this vetting process. However the fact that teachers and school

heads were able to identify some weaknesses in some of the textbooks was evidence that the process was not error-proof.

7.2.3 Deployment and training of teaching staff

The quality of what goes on in the classroom is largely influenced by teachers; and hence school heads are supposed to know those they assign to the different subjects and classes. Specifically, heads should be clear of their staff's knowledge of pedagogy and personal and practical skills. During the fieldwork, it was reported by school heads and parents that the quality of some of the teachers in the study schools was questionable. Four primary school heads (A2Ps2, B2Ps2, B1Ps2 and B2Ps1) out of the 11 felt that their schools had some poorly qualified teachers as a result of low entry backgrounds into teachers' colleges coupled with poor training. The head at B2Ps2 School described this as 'a crucial problem that they were grappling with'. He then described why teacher trainees have poor entry qualifications:

School leavers will look for different types of training and if they do not get any, then they can apply for teacher training. So if we're just picking failures for the teaching profession, can we really entrust our education system on such people? How dangerous would that be! It's just like recruiting undisciplined people to become clergy men. How would such people manage their followers if they're not of good conduct themselves? (Source Code: James at B2Ps2 School, 209-215)

Another school head (Jennifer, A2Ps2 Primary School) faulted the teacher training system in which primary school teachers were prepared to become 'generalist', that is once they were hired and posted in schools, they were obliged to teach any of the subjects in the school curriculum. She felt that this was not practical and especially for the fact that TC2005 was designed to be competency-based. The same issue was later raised by the head of B2Ps2 Primary School who claimed that even the school inspectors had noted the teachers' quality problem and had occasionally conducted some in-house training sessions during their visits to alleviate the problem.

The issue of low entry qualifications of teacher trainees into training colleges was confirmed by documentary evidence at the Ministry of Education. As noted earlier in the thesis, TC2005 was carried out as part of SEDP, one objective of which was increasing equitable access. In order to achieve this, more schools were constructed to take in more students, and more teachers were trained for the same purpose. Table 7.5 summarises this teachers' and students' increase between 2005 and 2009 under SEDP implementation.

Table 7.5: Increase in the number of students and staff, Tanzania 2005 - 2009.

Level	Students		Teachers	
	2005	2009	2005	2009
Pre-primary	638,591	896,146	11,148	17,176
Primary	7,541,208	8,441,553	135,034	157,724
Secondary	525,325	1,466,402	18,754	33,954,

Source: Ministry of Education and Vocational Training, 2009

Several strategies were adopted by the Government to avail more teachers for the expanding school system. As noted by Bennel & Mukyanuzi (2004), these included revisiting the conventional ways of teacher training in residential centres that was regarded to be slower, lowering the academic requirements for school leavers aspiring to join the profession, and licensing people trained in other professions and thereafter posting them in schools to teacher. For primary school teacher trainees, their two-year residential training was reduced to one year; they were then posted to schools for their second year under the supervision of mentors. The minimum entry qualification for these trainees in teachers' colleges was brought down to Grade D (average score of 20 - 40 points in the National Examination according to IBE/UNESCO (2010). For secondary school teacher trainees, their two-year residential stay in teachers' colleges was also reduced by one year between 2005 and 2008.

A remarkable and controversial Government decision however was the introduction of a short 4-weeks training programme for anyone with minimal A-Level qualifications in science, business or technical subjects so as to fill the gap of such teachers especially in rural-based community secondary schools. Appendix XI is an advertisement in the local public media by the Government calling for 6000 applicants for this programme. Due to their poor performance in schools, these teachers were nicknamed VodaFasta after a speedy and secure sale of prepaid airtime by one of the country's mobile service providers.

The weaknesses of teachers were also raised by all four school committees that participated in focus group sessions. Members from A1Ps1 and A2Ps2 schools claimed that teachers were not clear of what they were doing, and that many of them were frustrated. During a session with committee members at A2Ps1 Primary School, further weaknesses were raised. As the session went on, a participant pointed out of the window at a group of teachers sitting under the shade of trees outside as classes were in session:

Do you see them out there? While they are supposed to be in class, they are just sitting under the trees doing nothing. If you ask them, they'd say they are busy correcting pupils' exercise books, but actually they're not. (Source Code: Parents Focus Group at A2Ps2, 134-136)

Her colleague in the discussion went on to re-emphasise this by recalling a proposal by the Education Minister some years back requesting that all primary school teachers sit for the National Primary Four Examination as done by their pupils to prove their competency. She said, although teachers castigated the minister for the proposal, she was certain some teachers would have failed.

As regards teacher trainees' entry qualifications and actual training, there was a feeling that some were failures in the National Examinations. Members claimed that school leavers with Division 4 (lowest in the national examination grading system) were enrolled to train as teachers and thereafter posted in schools. "But in reality, Division 4 is just a point or

two above the fail mark;” the participant argued. On the short term training described earlier, there was a suggestion that it should be abolished outright:

A few weeks ago, I found them teaching in school. When I enquired, I was told that they went to a teachers college for one month training. This is a mockery of the profession. If we have teachers who stayed in college for 2-3 years and still are not teaching well, how can a 1-month teacher be effective! Thank God of recent, members of parliament have been shouting about the bad shape of our education and I hope the Government has been listening. The Government should accept the reality and invest heavily in education if we want to develop economically.

(Source Code: Parents Focus Group at B2Ps2, 338-345)

His colleague claimed that the public had come to appoint of losing trust with the way the Government was training teachers. He alleged that for so many years, no one had ever doubted the quality of training provided to trainee teachers, and indeed school heads used to brag of the product they received from certain good quality colleges. He claimed that the main reason for poor quality teachers was the expansion of the primary and secondary education systems as well as lack of jobs in other sectors of the economy that have created a rush into the profession even for those students who deep down their hearts were not interested to become teachers. On subject specialisation, the committee members emphasised that there was need to do so for primary school teacher trainees just as it was done for secondary school teacher trainees. They opined that specialisation enhances teacher effectiveness and makes students enjoy their subjects however difficult they are.

Besides pedagogical capability, teachers’ ineffectiveness in translating TC2005 was also described in terms of lack of practical skills especially in handling three new subjects namely ICT, Sports and Vocational Skills. The school head at B2Ps2 Primary School asserted that the new curriculum required them to teach ICT while many teachers in his school did not know

even how to switch on a computer. In his case, he acquired computer skills through his own cost and initiative. At B2Ps2 School, the head reported that they were teaching the subject ICT theoretically, and with total dependence on the textbook. She explained how this was done:

The teacher walks into the classroom, draws a desktop computer and labels the different external parts for the pupils to copy. And this is dangerous because the teacher has never seen a computer before, and can therefore cheat the pupils. Now what will happen if there was a pupil in the class who happens to have seen or used a computer before! It's going to be a shame. (Source Code: Thecla 081-086)

Teachers' teaching approaches also came up during the school heads' interview sessions, with participants the use of learner-unfriendly practices in schools as evidence of teacher ineffectiveness. The deputy head at B2Ps1 Primary School for example brought this up with regard to the teaching of Primary Mathematics.

Currently Mathematics is a subject of corporal punishment ... If a pupil cannot recite the multiplication tables, then they are in deep trouble. I remember we had a meeting with the regional and district academic officers and ... it was pointed out that many teachers teach the subject using the cane and this contributes to many students disliking the subject. (Source Code: Sabuni, 080-084)

In another district, primary school pupils that participated in focus group discussion related the case of a teacher that was poor in teaching with her habit of punishing students severely. As the focus group discussion switched to how the teachers were teaching the different TC2005 subjects, the issue of a history teacher (Ms Bernard, not her real name) came up. The group complained that she was a problem because she just "writes notes on the chalk board for us to copy in our exercise books."

Ms Bernard is the leader in corporal punishment. You may come late to school for a very good reason and she wouldn't ask for

reasons. She'd just command you to lie down and beat you severely on different parts of the body. Sometimes you can't even follow what the teachers are teaching in the class for the whole day because of the pain. (Source Code: Students focus discussion at B1Ps2, 144-147)

The students further said that the teacher was married to a fellow teacher at the school who was not only an equally poor teacher in the class, but also notorious in punishing students: An extract of the discussion went as follows:

FHz: I remember a case in which a pupil was caned by a female teacher using a stick that was quite rough. The pupil got bruised and was so angry that he decided to fight with the teacher; a real fist fight.

Researcher: How old was the pupil and who was the teacher?

FHz: About 13 or 14, and it was the same teacher we're talking about.

Researcher: What happened thereafter?

FHz: He was suspended from school, I mean the pupil.

Researcher: So he stayed away?

FHz: Yes temporarily because he was insisting that he came to school to study and not to be beaten. But later on he came back and unfortunately he did not pass to go to secondary school. So he is now doing some fishing business at the seashore.

(Source Code: Students focus group at B1Ps2 School, 158-160)

My first thoughts on this information was that there may have been a management problem at this particular school because such forms of punishment have been outlawed by Education Circular No. 25 of 1978 (amended in 1990). I confirmed my suspicion later as I interviewed the school head who informed me of some 'courageous' students who had stood up against such forms of punishment and reported the matter to him. In such cases, he often suggested a different form of 'lenient' corporal punishment. But of more importance to me was the 'coincidence' between teachers who were not effective in the classroom and the way

they conducted themselves when dealing with students' behaviour both in and outside the classroom. Human psychologists describe such behaviour as an attempt for one to compensate on their weaknesses (Paschen & Dihsmailer 2014, Ormrod 2012; Lopez and Snyder 2008). It is a mechanism applied by an individual in order to conceal, consciously or otherwise, weaknesses, frustrations, inadequacy or incompetence. It also reinforces inferiority feelings. In the case of the couple mentioned above, I presume they were compensating (perhaps over-compensating to be exact) in such a way as to appear before their students as powerful and domineering figures. No wonder, the students' conclusion was 'they should be transferred to another school'.

The ferocity of corporal punishment in the schools visited was basically child abuse and it touched me so much as a researcher, teacher and parent. I knew that a crime was being committed in these schools and that the sooner this was rectified the better. So in a meeting with the District Education Officer as I was winding up my stay in the district, I raised this without mentioning the teachers' names. In fact this is advisable in certain circumstances as asserted by Wiles *et al.* ((2008) that:

It is recognized that there may be occasions when researchers feel the need to intentionally and knowingly break confidentiality. For example, to protect public safety, researchers might be expected to (or be required to) break the confidence of a participant if they disclose having committed or being about to commit a crime.

7.3 Limited Autonomy

A total of 74 classroom teachers responded to a Likert scale questionnaire in which there were some open-ended questions to attract as wider views as possible. Out of these, 53 per cent answered the open-ended questions, and upon analysis of the same, three things emerged as limiting factors to teachers' autonomy. These are delineated in this section as (i) Lack of effective capacity building, (ii) Policy factors external to the school, and (iii) Teachers' own conceptualization of education, curriculum and curriculum change.

7.3.1 Lack of effective capacity-building

The majority of the teachers who commented on this factor underscored the significance of the teacher as a major player in effecting curriculum change. They also highlighted the need for comprehensive training prior to the launching of any new curriculum as well as continuous professional development (CPD) programmes thereafter. With regard to TC2005, they registered their dissatisfaction on how teacher orientation was carried out. They alleged that not only were only a handful of teachers trained, but also the training was too brief (between 3-5 days). The sessions were also poorly organised. These opinions did not differ much from the responses of an item in the Likert scale questionnaire that probed specifically on teachers' orientation. The following table summarises these responses:

Table 7.6: Classroom teachers' responses on TC2005 orientation

N=74	Agreed	%	Disagreed	%
In my school/college, teachers were trained in preparation for implementing the 2005 curriculum.	26	35	48	65

Source: Researcher's Likert-scale data

The classroom teachers' views were supported by their school heads who earlier on, had described their disappointment on both the duration and organisation of the training. Samples of interview data extracted from school heads interviews at B1Ps1 and A2Ps2 school are presented here as examples:

Thecla: We were taken to a 3-day seminar at a nearby primary school and told about the curriculum change and the things that have been changed. They (district education officials) also gave us the new syllabuses and we analysed them. But you can imagine analysing syllabuses of 10 subjects in 3 days while I thought we'd have needed at least 20 days. So time was too short really and everybody was just interested in the changes effected on her subject syllabus.

Researcher: Now what can you remember after this seminar especially when you arrived back in school?

Thecla: Well, we came back with our syllabuses and a few books and began doing what we can. I mean we were basically teaching without books; and you could see that the pupils do not understand what you are saying; but what else could you do? (Source Code: Thecla at B1Ps1 School, 043-047)

Jennifer, the deputy school head at A2Ps2 disclosed how they were informed of the use of the cascade training model in orientating teachers to implement TC2005 beginning with district officials and inspectors to be followed by school heads and finally classroom teachers. When the latter came back, they trained the remaining staff members in the school. The participants then described how ineffective this was:

Jennifer: However, so many things were not clear to many of us and even to the teachers who were themselves trained.

Researcher: Like what?

Jennifer: A good example was the competencies described in the syllabuses. You see, the syllabuses are said to be competency-based; and that after each lesson, a pupil is expected to have attained these competencies. How does a teacher do that? There was an item that says pupils should evaluate teachers at the end of the lessons. This was and is still unclear. (Source code: Jennifer at A2Ps2 School, 047-053)

Field data also reported on some personal initiatives in organising training to enhance teachers' capacity. A good example was at B2Ps2 Primary School where, the head after realising the need for computer skills in the teaching of ICT, decided to attend a basic computer skills training on his own cost. Four other teachers followed suit. Furthermore, the Secondary School Education Officer in District B2 organised training on TC2005 for her teachers and schools with support from the District Council Director, and invited a trainer from the curriculum institute. These were commendable initiatives certainly although they were not free from criticism. The head of B2Ss1 Secondary School who attended the training described his disappointment on the way this carried out. He said the sessions involved teachers being grouped in different subject specialties and asked to

prepare a competency-based lesson plan and present it fellow participants. The lead trainer was from the national curriculum institute.

But every presentation was disqualified by the trainer, and this was quite surprising. These were presentations made by groups from different schools and some of the group members were highly experienced teachers. Surprisingly, the trainer gave no reason. He would just listen to a presentation and say 'that's wrong, or there is no substance in that. (Source Code: Mgosi at B2Ss1 School, 051-054)

The other thing observed by the participant was that many useful things were grouped together and thus they had to be hurriedly done within the two hours allocated by the organisers. According to the participant, this was a two-day seminar and all the trainees had expected that the whole time would be allocated to the new curriculum which he described as the 'the real big issue'. It emerged that this was not the case as other policy and administrative issues were brought in for discussion and thus taking up time that could have been utilised for TC2005 problems. District education officials and inspectors were also asked about teacher orientation in their areas prior to the launching of TC2005; and out of the 16 officials contacted through a questionnaire, 13 (81 per cent) responded in the negative.

A few weeks after meeting the district officials and teachers, I interviewed two senior Ministry of Education officials who informed me that no funds were allocated specifically for teacher orientation before TC2005 was launched. Thus the erratic nature of what I found in the field was confirmed. Conclusively, I want to propose that the assertions, claims, views and opinions in Section 7.2.2 were concerns of the participants regarding Government policy decisions that incapacitated the teaching workforce in translating a formal school curriculum. To borrow Lichtenstein *et al* (1991:11) phrase, the teachers became victims of policymakers and were positioned such that they could not plan their classrooms activities effectively.

7.3.2 Lack of teachers' voice

In general, classroom teachers reiterated what was noted in Chapter 6 that TC2005 was designed at the top and thereafter handed down to them. As noted by Kirk and Macdonald (2001), teachers in such a situation were not partners in the process and thus possessed no authority to speak about it. This describes their sole dependency on the Government as reported early in the chapter (See Section 7.2.1). Teachers' responses to the open-ended questions suggested that their non-participation made them unable to detach, reflect or make critical decisions in the classrooms. A sample of their views are presented here for elaboration:

My views are that when they need to review the curriculum, they should involve the implementation agents, to wit teachers. These are the ones that can identify and correct the problems that emerge during the implementation process.

(Source Code: Teachers' views, T05: 022-24)

When changing the school curriculum, teachers, parents and other stakeholders should be involved.

(Source Code: Teachers' views, T07: 43-44)

The new curriculum did not involve teachers and college tutors. If they were, they would have provided very useful contribution towards effective implementation of the same.

(Source Code: Teachers' views: Teacher 17: 103-6).

The key stakeholders i.e. students, teachers and parents were not involved.

(Source Code: Teachers' views, T18: 110)

Teachers, parents and other key stakeholders were never involved in the 2005 curriculum reform process

(Source Code: Teachers' views, T20:127)

Curriculum implementers should be allowed to participate in curriculum review by 100 per cent. It is not sufficient to only give them instructions through ministry circulars.

(Source Code: Teachers' views, T23: 160-61)

In response to a Likert scale questionnaire item on information sharing as a way of empowering staff at the various levels of the curriculum system, it became clear that the majority of the teachers (70 - 80 percent) acknowledged the importance of providing information to stakeholders,

but at the same time reported on how they themselves felt victims after being denied vital information on TC2005. Table 7.7 are their responses with regard to this item:

Table 7.7: Classroom teachers' responses on communication during TC2005

N=74	Agreed	%	Disagreed	%
When a curriculum is changed, it is important to inform education stakeholders (teachers, parents, ...).	61	82	13	18
During the 2005 curriculum reform process, the education authorities kept my school informed.	20	27	54	73
During the 2005 curriculum reform process, the education authorities informed stakeholders.	13	18	61	72

Source: Researcher's fieldwork data

In summary, I argue that the teaching force contacted in the field, were implementing a curriculum of which they had less sense of ownership. They did not deliberate, commend or agree on what they were teaching as stakeholders, and hence the opinions that they volunteered to give may be interpreted as questioning the legitimacy of TC2005 as a public policy (Peters & Abud, 2009; Abelson *et al.*, 2003). Kirk and Macdonald op. cit.:551) underscore this teacher ownership of school curriculum as a public policy:

...we contend that the possibilities for teacher ownership of curriculum change are circumscribed by the anchoring of their authority to speak on curriculum matters in the local context of implementation. We argue that this anchoring of teacher voice provides a key to understanding the perennial problem of the transformation of innovative ideas from conception to implementation.

7.3.3 Policies of social exclusion

There were feelings from the teaching workforce that their autonomy in TC2005 was also eroded by existing policies that harboured elements of

social exclusion though on the surface, they appeared socially inclusive. Teachers who commented on this cited the rural-urban dichotomous nature of the problems of implementing TC2005. In fact their views suggested that TC2005 was not being effectively implemented in schools located in rural areas. The subjects mostly affected were the newly-incorporated ones that required electrical-operated equipment such as computers as the service was not available in such locations. They suspected that the curriculum policy makers only had in mind urban schools when conceptualising and writing up the policy. A sample of their comments is presented here-under:

The new curriculum was made in favour of urban schools where there are facilities such as computers. In rural schools, such facilities are not available.

(Source Code: Classroom teacher n10 at B1Ps2 Primary School)

Rural schools have no electric power and therefore it becomes almost impossible to teach ICT.

(Source Code: Classroom teacher n14 at B1Ps1 Primary School)

This curriculum is not meant for rural schools because there are no resources. We're expected to teach the use of the computer in a school where there is no electric power. How do we do it?

(Source Code: Classroom teacher n15 at B1Ps1 Primary School)

Priority should be given to rural schools in terms of teachers' provision as well as in finance and teaching learning materials. It is difficult for the new curriculum objectives to be attained in the coastal areas because many people do not realize the value of education coupled with the fact that there is abject poverty, and the poor quality of the education provided and many other factors.

(Source Code: Classroom teacher n21 at B2Ps1 Primary School)

7.3.4 Teachers' conceptualisation of curriculum and change

Teachers' knowledge and what they believe regarding education, learning and curriculum change form configurations for filtering and organising information. Earlier in the data collection exercise, a senior official of at the Ministry of Education had claimed that the Government had not succeeded to make the teachers know what they were teaching, and he felt this to be a negating factor towards TC2005 implementation.

In the Likert-scale questionnaire, three main areas emerged from their responses to suggest what they knew and believed about education and curriculum change. First, the responses suggested that changing school curriculum was inevitable as a way of addressing new and old societal problems. For instance, beside technology, they had also expected TC2005 to address reading, writing and arithmetic for lower classes as it was done in the 1970s. Such views were in conformity to massive outcry in the media regarding deterioration of such skills nationally (Mwananchi Newspaper, Tanzania 21/12/13, Uwezo Tanzania 2012; HabariLeo Newspaper, Tanzania 27/07/12).

Second, their responses suggested that they were knowledgeable regarding curriculum process, especially the need for coordination between Government authorities and various groups with stake and interest in curriculum. They felt that in TC2005, materials producers were not involved leading to persistent shortages and even total lack in some schools. They also considered teaching-learning materials in a wider perspective and not only textbooks. They wondered why supplementary readers were left out in the policy.

Third, reflecting on their role as key players in the curriculum change, they underscored the significance of training and participation. On training, they felt that TC2005 left lots of issues unclear leading to difficulties in teaching some of the subjects. They also felt that training should involve some of the basic skills necessary for effective classroom practice such as writing schemes of work and lesson plans with emphasis put on the new subjects of the TC2005.

On participation they argued that TC2005 should have involved teachers, parents and other key curriculum stakeholders. They claimed that teachers should participate fully as because they are the ones that can identify and correct the problems that emerge during the implementation process. They argued that it was not sufficient to only give instructions through circulars. The general feeling was that if they were involved, they would have provided very useful contribution towards effective implementation of the same.

7.4 Discussion

The content of the new curriculum

There are always political dynamics in official school curriculum construction and implementation. As pointed out in Chapter 6, the new curriculum in Tanzania was highly centralised in both form and content as portrayed by the formats of the various subject syllabuses (See Samples in Appendix XV). School headship in Tanzania is through formal appointment by the Central or Local Government, a process that accrues legitimate power on the appointees, and provides them with authority to make decisions (Webb and MacDonald, 2007). In order to facilitate the process of translating TC2005 in their schools, it was crucial for the school heads to maintain and strengthen their identities as well as to operate as people with power to lead.

Stronge (2007) categorises the leadership roles of a school head into managerial and instructional. A comprehensive definition of the two has been a contested terrain as noted by

Middlewood & Parker (2009; Keating & Moorcraft (2006) and Tranter (2006). Early & Bubb (2004) have described managerial functions to include planning, organizing, staffing, coordinating and controlling, whereas instructional leadership functions include beliefs, decisions, strategies, and tactics that heads utilise to guide effective teaching and learning. According to Rop-Chepkemai, Osman & Kirui (2012:270) although instructional leadership is crucial for school heads, they cannot be effective instructional leaders if they are not effective managers. The

tendency however has been that of heads spending much of their time in managing than in instructing (Stronge, 2007 as quoted in Rop-Chepkemioi, Osman & Kirui (op.cit.)). Interestingly, they discovered that the trend did not change even after the heads were trained on instructional leadership roles.

Marks & Printy (2003) concurs with this line of argument but use slightly different terminologies, i.e. *transformational* and *shared instructional* functions. They describe transformational functions to include maintaining the school culture, providing direction, innovative ideas, and empowering teachers as partners in decision making. On the other hand, they describe shared instructional functions of the school leader to involve mainly active collaboration with teaching staff on curriculum, teaching and assessment, seeking insights and ideas from them and sharing with them on issues to do with staff development, curriculum development and supervision.

As noted here-above, the managerial, instructional and transformational roles described by Stronge (op.cit) in Osman & Kirui (op.cit) and Marks & Printy (op.cit) are implicitly portrayed in this Government document. Interestingly, the document allocates 40 per cent of the school heads' time for school curriculum issues and 60 per cent for the others. How school heads have been able to effectively adhere to this time allocation was outside the scope of this study. Despite the fact that Stronge (2007) was describing an American context, the four functions for Tanzania school heads were all 'management' functions, implying that the policy makers gave less impetus to pedagogy.

Resource deployment

The World Bank (2008) maintains that the major teaching learning materials in sub-Saharan African schools are textbooks which unfortunately are always in short supply. In the Tanzania education system, efforts to address the textbook problem have led to policy restructuring culminating into a liberalised textbook market and thus opening it up to global

publishing conglomerates (URT/MoEC 1991, URT/MoEC 1998). To make sure that the textbooks met the pedagogical and physical quality standards as well as consonance to people's culture, the government set up a mechanism to vet them. With the CG funding in schools, it was expected that this system will address school needs under open and transparent criteria (URT/MoEC 1991; URT/MoEC 1998; URT/MoEVT 2005). The procurement procedure had a legal backing as it was based on Government Procurement Act No. 3, 2001 and Local Government Financial Authority Act No. 9, 1982. Procurement guidelines (URT/MoEVT 2002; URT/MoEVT 2003) were also sent to schools.

On the surface, this arrangement may appear to devolve power to the grass-root institutions in selecting textbook titles as per their needs and cultural relevance. Nevertheless, this power was limited by the contradictions within the policy itself as only authorised books were to be procured. In an environment in which the publishing sector is still in the infancy, getting authorised books that may not appeal to the taste of some school heads is a possibility. Furthermore, the funds disbursed to schools have always been less than the requirements without forgetting that there are delays, lack of information and ad-hoc and conflicting instructions from the education authorities.

The disbursement of some materials direct from the centre to schools seems to have been an undocumented policy that operated parallel and albeit contrary to the long established Capitation Grant system for schools. It was not easy for me to access the criteria used by the Government officials to allocate how many items to which schools. Documentary evidence however detected some elements of unfairness. For example there was a primary school with seven globes and three science kits while others had only one or none at all. I argue that these factors limited the school heads' decision making regarding teaching-learning materials. Finally, I noted lack of creativity on the part of many of the school heads as none of them spoke of alternative ways of acquiring school materials to supplement Government-supplied materials. For example the business community and other non-government agencies could have been

approached for this purpose instead of waiting for the Government to act; and if this did not happen or happened late, then implementation of the curriculum suffered.

Staff deployment

It is important to stress here that all public school teachers are civil servants, employed and posted to schools by the Government. In the discussion thus far, school heads appear to have had no say except receiving them (teachers) and assigning them to classes. In primary schools, teachers are trained as generalists, and hence assigning them to classes may not be such a difficult task. In secondary schools, teachers specialise in major and minor subject options and thus assigning them may be done according to each one's specialisation. Whereas this may sound a simple routine function for the school head, one should bear in mind that the teaching of subjects included in TC2005 was intended to attain prescribed national aims; and that teachers were the key figures to make this possible. School heads in this case needed to have capacity to assess the expertise of their teachers prior to assigning them. According to Shulman, (1987, 1989), this is a question of teacher's capacity to anticipate students' preconceptions as well as their capacity to comprehend the content and concepts to be taught. There seemed to have been not much choice on the school heads regarding which teacher to allocate to which class or subject given the poor entry background into teacher training colleges and lack of orientation.

The Tanzanian case presents an interesting context such that one can counteract school heads' assertions that they were indeed managing the school curriculum. I mean if managing basically implies planning, organising, staffing, coordinating and controlling, and yet the data indicates that there were fewer opportunities for them to execute these functions effectively, it follows that whatever they were doing did not contribute much towards achieving TC2005 goals.

Capacity building

Teachers' professionalism refers to their rights and obligations to determine their own tasks in the classroom. It defines the way in which teachers develop, negotiate, use and control their own knowledge (Blasé 2009, Benson, 2002; Benson, 2000) as they perform their duties in the classrooms. It is thus closely related to teachers' autonomy defined as the capacity to carry out self-directed professional actions and to be free from control over such professional actions (Carl, 2005). Elsewhere, this has been defined as teachers' capacity to engage in self-directed teaching (Little 1995, Smith 2000). Supporters of teacher autonomy posit that it is key to better teaching (Porter 1989 in Friedman 1999), as it allows wider involvement; and that teachers with a higher sense of autonomy have been found to be more willing and supportive of change.

In the TC2005 case, classroom teachers' professionalism seems to have been reduced by the state playing a major role in deciding what goes in the curriculum, and how it should be presented to the learners. Yet this is a control mechanism that impacted on teachers' operations in their spatial settings which they knew best, and were supposed to have the freedom to decide things in there. I could not agree more with Sachs (2001) that such control does not only erode teachers' professional status but also re-defines it.

Teachers in Tanzania have been operating in classrooms that differ physically, socially, and culturally. In fact even in the same school, one finds differences between adjacent classrooms. Hence uniform prescriptions of the curriculum from the top echelons of state power may not work as expected. The reason is that given the cultural, economic and social distance between the top (centre) where decisions are made and the bottom (periphery grass-root institutions where policies are practised, the likelihood of prescribing impractical instructions is huge. The fact that nobody in the field stopped teaching due to lack of clarity in the Government instructions, I propose that they were enacting these instructions to suit their school situations. McLaughlin (1987:172) reports on a similar trend in policy implementation in the Western world.

Implementers did not always do as told, nor did they always act to maximize policy objectives. Instead those responsible for implementation of the policy responded in what often seemed quite idiosyncratic, frustratingly unpredictable, if not downright resistant ways. The result was not only programme outcomes that fell short of expectations but also enormous variability in what constituted a programme in communities across the nation.

Literature suggests that capacity building is an empowering strategy and the perfect starting point in addressing all school problems (Pearson & Moomaw, 2006). With greater powers, come freedom in professional matters that lead to equally more control of their working environment and consequently enhanced planning and decision making (Pearson & Hall, 1993; Short, 1994). According to UNESCO/IBE (2002), capacity building is a more comprehensive term than other conventional terms as it culminates in improved decision-making, management, and operational functions for the benefit of the students, their families, communities, and the wider society. It is a process of assisting an individual or group to identify and address issues and to gain the insights, knowledge and experience needed to solve problems and implement change. Unlike more prescriptive top-down approaches, capacity building seeks to empower partners to use research and to make informed decisions in leading and facilitating curriculum development and renewal through a range of activities related to information exchange, research, and training.

In a seminar report for Asia and the Pacific countries on capacity building for implementing curriculum change (UNESCO/IBE 2002:65), the rationale, needs and training approaches for the different levels of the education system were identified. For classroom teachers, building their capacity was rationalised because they are the ones that implement the curriculum, develop lessons, organize teaching, and possess a true testimony to the success of any curriculum reform. Their identified needs included making them aware of new pedagogical approaches in curriculum instruction, developing curriculum content to suit local context, updating changing trends in education, knowledge domain, teaching of process skills, and awareness in teachers' belief systems related to subject matter. Also

evaluating learning outcome, matching teaching styles with learning styles, managing the classroom environment, and the changing roles of teachers were identified as some of the gaps that needed to be addressed through capacity building. Suggested training approaches included direct training by curriculum development specialists so that training content does not get watered down at the level of the teacher, interactive approaches to training, face-to-face sessions, demonstrations, simulations, case studies, immersion in model schools, mentoring-cum-coaching and visiting other countries.

In comparison, the TC2005 scenario saw a few teachers attending brief seminars, adoption of cascade training model which did not seem to work well as some of the teachers could not grasp the themes they were trained in and thus could not train their colleagues at school. Consequently, one sees here TC2005 policy goals left to be attained by a body of disempowered teaching force. As noted elsewhere, change becomes difficult to achieve and sustain by teachers because of inadequate professional support and resources (White, 2004; Atkin & Black, 2003; Wallace & Loudon, 2003; Peers et al, 2003).

Exclusion of teachers' voice

According to Van Rooy (2005), Fullan (2001), Fullan and Hargreaves (1992) and Haberman (1992) success in curriculum reform depends on informed teachers who themselves are responsible ultimately for the implementation of new syllabi, assessment practices and standards of student performance. Carl (2005:223) identifies two scenarios in this teacher aspect. In scenario one, they are considered partners in the process of curriculum change, and are provided with a forum to voice their concerns and the right to be heard before actual implementation. In scenario two, they can simply be taken to be recipients of curriculum developed by specialists somewhere, and thus their main function remains limited to applying ideas contained in the documents that arrive at school from the Government. This is the top-down approach which limits teachers' ownership of what they are teaching.

Prior consultation between teachers and policy planners allows the two sides to be in touch with each other and with current educational practices, and ultimately, the new curriculum does not appear to be an imposition from above. Additionally, prior consultation ensures that practitioners' inputs into the new envisaged curriculum policy are included at the right time. When the formalised curriculum policy document finally arrives at school, teachers would not find it unfamiliar. In TC2005 case, teachers reiterated that they were merely recipients of the new curriculum. Their professional status was therefore jeopardised.

7.5 Chapter Summary

This chapter describes how the curriculum policy that came into force in 2005 in Tanzania was enacted. Two main factors were noted to have had impact on actual classroom teaching namely lack of professional recognition and identity and limited autonomy. Factor number one was noted in decision making regarding the content to be taught, the teaching methods and the deployment of human and physical resources whereby the heads had less to do except adherence to state prescribed instructions. Factor number two was portrayed through four main areas namely lack of effective capacity building, absence of teachers' voice, policies of social exclusion and the way the teachers conceptualized curriculum change.

All in all, the chapter concludes that the approach to policy implementation adopted in TC2005 was bureaucratic and inconsiderate of the impact of professionals in deciding things in work places. The model utilized lays more emphasis on formal distribution of authority against reality of events in schools. The reality in schools is that school heads are trained to manage and coordinate activities going on in their schools including curriculum.

The school heads, school inspectors and the examination system on the other hand have been identified as forces loyal to the state and parts of the hierarchical administrative and control structure. Classroom teachers are trained to translate the formal curriculum into meaningful knowledge. They can only do this effectively depending on their own pedagogical knowledge, experiences, availability of resources, and the physical state of

the classroom. They will do even if these decisions have not been mentioned in the Government documents.

CHAPTER EIGHT

CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

8.1 Introduction

In this chapter, I put together all the elements that came out of my study on the formulation, management and implementation of the school curriculum reform that was carried out in Tanzania in 2005. Using Critical Policy Sociology approach, I raise three key issues upon which I base the conclusions that I draw. These issues are i) the power relations between the centre and the periphery, ii) the divergence between theories intended to be the base of the curriculum and the actual curriculum that was finally produced, and iii) the authoritative management style adopted which restricted injection of school heads and classroom teachers' ideas and how this impacted on actual classroom practice. I synthesise the various reading sources consulted during the research journey, the literature that exists in this area, the summary of findings as well as implications to curriculum as a discipline.

By looking at the introductory and context chapters, research aims and a description of how I have fulfilled them, I connect the findings, existing studies in the field, practice, theories and potential for future studies. Throughout the chapter, I consider the findings drawn from the data and weave them into the final conclusions. Within the conclusions, I show the significance of the research for knowledge in the discipline, i.e. what is new and what is important; whereas for implications, I demonstrate what this study means in practical terms, in ideas and as well as in ideas and theories. As for the limitations of the study, I note that this was an in-depth undertaking that was restricted by a limited scope, methodological restrictions, and practical realities. I conclude the thesis by making recommendations for further research.

In the following sections (8. - 8.6) I present the conclusions, implications for each of the three research questions and link them to overall research purpose as well as to the contribution of knowledge to curriculum

development and reform. I take off with the first question of my study which relates to stakeholders' participation in the curriculum process.

8.2 The power of the centre and the powerlessness of the 'periphery'

Research Question 1: *What role did education/curriculum stakeholders play in the curriculum reform process and with what effect?*

School staff (heads and classroom teachers), local communities and institutions outside the central and local government structures are expected to collaborate in education and curriculum policy making in order for instruction in schools to become effective. The participation of school staff is advocated because it has been realised in history (Bennet, 2002:506) that these are people who are closely related and always interacting with the curriculum as well as the recipients of the curriculum, and as such denying them opportunity to participate in such processes is indeed not right.

Teachers are visionary people and self-directed professionals who can produce their own knowledge and find out the needs of their students. This is an empowered vision of the teaching profession that makes teacher to serve as curriculum developers in their classrooms. Furthermore, getting teachers involved in the reform process equips them with skills required for the change, and enables them to apply the change to local circumstances (Thomas 1994:1855). Local communities' involvement in school curriculum is advocated for the reason that they have potential to contribute as they possess wider knowledge of the location and surroundings of the schools i.e. the contexts of curricula implementation. But above all, people residing in the majority of rural communities in the less developed world are materially poor and socially powerless; hence participation bestows power on them - the capacity to make rational decisions and choices regarding their well-being.

Regarding non-state organisations including NGOs, CBOs, and the private sector, their participation widens collaboration and partnership — the cores of effective policy making. These have vital role in informing and

implementing the education agenda and especially in making better use of human and physical resources and institutional capacities. In short, partnering with stakeholders allows the creation of multi-stakeholder dialogue that leads to achieving intended goals. According to CAADP (2011:6), partnership approach builds alliances and is the new way of doing business. It is as pointed out by Power *et al* (2004:253) a way of making different bodies – public, private, voluntary, and community to work together to deliver ‘joined-up solutions’ for ‘joined-up problems’. In the TC2005 case, these have largely been ignored.

On this basis, the general conclusion I draw from the study for the first research question is that the TC2005 process portrayed the domination, control, supremacy, power, and authority of the central government in the making of education/curriculum policies resulting in the disempowering of practitioners and key stakeholders. Specific aspects of this observation are illustrated by the way through which:

- i. Heads of schools, classroom teachers, and district education administrators and inspectors who often serve as brokers of curricula policies were excluded in the agenda-setting stage of the TC2005 policy process. This is the discussion stage where political office bearers and stakeholders would have talked about the issues at stake before passing the same to those supposed to turn the talk into policy.
- ii. A limited number of stakeholders were involved in the text-production stage after being consulted during a survey. However, there was room to widen the scope of stakeholders.
- iii. Non-state institutions that were regarded critical towards the government were excluded from the TC2005 process outright, but those less critical were included. This has made TC2005 susceptible to less accountability, less transparency and other undemocratic tendencies.

Implications

The major implication here is that power relations in policy making in Tanzania need to be realised and balanced between the parties concerned,

herein the policy makers, the policy brokers and the recipients. Curriculum policies are formulated with the intention of addressing education gaps, yet like all public policies, the construction process cannot be kept away from bi-partisan politics where individuals and institutions are in continuous struggle to assure their own values over-rule the others and are continuously being reproduced. So there are those that fight to keep the status quo while others fight to break even. The policy makers need to be informed that involvement of the citizenry in education and curriculum policy making processes is an invitation to join the power game and that the resulting contestations and messy realities are part of the process. Otherwise, a dichotomy between those with power and those without power would lead to disunity despite having single national curriculum in place. The world has been a witness of bad policies destroying nations.

8.3 Divergence between theoretical base of TC2005 against output and practice

Research Question 2: *How relevant was the new curriculum?*

Curriculum is no longer a school affair or a field of academicians; rather it has become a social and cultural phenomenon as practitioners struggle to reshape it to respond to changing societal needs with the sole purpose of making it relevant. History suggests that the quest to make curricula relevant is a call for paradigm shift from the old practices curricula that stressed content and testing led by John Dewey to curricula that balanced knowledge of the culture as well as the extension of learners' knowledge (Woolman 2001). Describing relevance of curricula however has never been easy due to the multi-dimensional nature of the concept itself (Moore 2006; Quicke 1999; Punia, undated). Nevertheless, there exist some general criteria that characterise a relevant curriculum as noted in Malott and Porfilio (2011), Sousa & Silva (2009), Ropo (2009), and Freire, (1985). These scholars believed that a relevant curriculum is one that enables learners to ascribe to their historical past, learn from a familiar cultural base, respect others, and connect new knowledge to their living experiences. In an African perspective, (Kapoma and Namusikwe 2011; Nyerere 1968), a relevant curriculum is expected to (i) provide the students with meaningful experiences that engenders deep and significant

learning and in response to the current time, (ii) fit with the personalised learning needs of the learners and develop the skills and confidence to be active and informed citizens in a rapidly changing world, and (iii) include practical skills and integrate existing societal problems. It is also expected to be flexible so as to change with time, (v) relate to the culture of the people and localise the content, and (vi) be offered in a common language understood by the learners.

On the basis of the above, a conclusion to the stated question entails making value judgment on the relevance of a curriculum whose yardsticks may not be that much clear. However, drawing from the findings, I assert that there was a clear intent on the part of the Government to replace an 'old' school curriculum with a new one that would be responsive to local and national needs. On the other hand, limitation of resources as well as political and donor pressure militated against this particular intent. Further, the curriculum model adopted made it difficult to have an output that was likely to make any significant difference with the one it replaced. Indeed one can argue that it was a curriculum designed to be impracticable. Specifically, I draw attention to the following:

- i) Foreign donor partners compelled certain things to be done their way (e.g. provision of textbooks by commercial publishers) under the pretext of advising the Government;
- ii) Issues of global concern were considered as new subjects in the new curriculum; however their accommodation never took cognizance of physical realities in schools especially those in rural locations. The result was ineffective teaching and learning in such cases as teaching the use of the computer through chalk-and-talk as there were no computers or electric power in the school, teaching practical chemistry by theorising in secondary schools without laboratories and a lady teacher compelled to teach fishing skills during a Vocational Studies lesson by reading through a textbook;
- iii) The model on which the new curriculum was based was the out-dated traditional one i.e. product/behavioural model (Tyler 1949; Bloom, 1965) which contradicts the intended i.e. Competency-based

(Constructivist-based). Practically what is practiced in schools in the country is the former, which by its design, discourages learners' and teachers' creativity and instead emphasizes content and examinations.

Implications

Curriculum theories have been and are useful just as any other theories in a discipline in that they help in understanding curriculum practice. Experts who adapt theories on which they intend to base practices should be certain that they are aligning the two correctly. Throughout the study, it was clear that TC2005 had focused on imparting skills and knowledge to the learners to enable them appreciate their culture, promote technology, uphold the fundamentals of the country's constitution, meet the changing needs of the economy and industry... (MoEVT, 2010). But when such good intentions are weighed by the recipients and evidence immensely indicates there has been little positive impact on the communities and the learners, one cannot stop to think of the cost (money, time, efforts) wasted. With those expected to be delivering the curriculum to the learners complaining of a multitude of problems to do with clarity, physical, fiscal and human resources, and dismal training, again one cannot but see the futility of this huge intervention. The best lesson from this would be to get well-prepared with the help of experts before sitting down to reform school curriculum.

8.4 The New Curriculum - authoritarian management

Research Question 3: *How was management functions executed and with what effects to classroom teaching?*

Literature on organizational management describes a variety of management strategies, and among the list is authoritative style that involves traits antithetical to participation. These include preventing others from speaking up, denying others opportunity to make decisions, harbouring feelings that you are the best qualified and best experienced, taking your views to be the most valid, having no trust on others even if they are able to perform, and feeling unhappy when other give differing opinions. In a nutshell managers with such traits fail to recognize skills of their teams. Participatory style on the other hand involves consensus in

goals identification, facilitation by the manager, and making the best use of team members' skills to arrive at decision. For effective management of curriculum change, the latter appeals more than the former. Managing change of curriculum should be an ordered activity that all the concerned parties need to consult and collaborate. Decisions need to be made at various levels of the education system, and follow up mechanisms to track progress need to be made as an in-built part of the process instead of it being a post-hoc activity. But above all, the need for stakeholders' consensus on the targets and needs of the planned changes is paramount.

The 2005 official school curriculum in Tanzania of which this study is about, was contained in rigid syllabuses of various subjects e.g. Language, Arts, Chemistry, Civics and Mathematics, the topics of which were decided largely by the government, and its curriculum agency. It was to be implemented using commercially published textbooks but only those that have passed through a government vetting system. In short the 'syllabus' was the curriculum according to the majority of the respondents. The package also included government circulars sent to schools, the majority of which were supposed not to be replied to but mainly giving instructions regarding the new curriculum.

Now, with school heads and their staff given no part to engage in self-direction at school and in individual classrooms as advised elsewhere, (See for example Smith 2000; Savage 2000, McGrath's 2000), their sense of autonomy that would have enabled them to broker and craft their own policies as they went on doing their job in their schools and classrooms was substantially limited. The missing key in this scenario was lack of 'participation' and consequently less practitioner voice, as emphasised by Blase & Kirby (2009:38):

Shared decision making, empowerment, involvement, teamwork, collaboration, participatory management, flat structures, shared governance — the terms are countless. Each year, an organisational scholar adds a brighter bow, but the new packaging conceals old contents. Inside is the weapon to fight bureaucratic inertia — participation ...

Operating in schools as learning institutions, heads and their staff should be strengthened in terms of their capacity to handle change through both formal and informal means. School heads can take this up as a curriculum change management strategy. The case in discussion was one of sketchy training organised by the curriculum centre to a few teachers and through cascade model; and thus most likely got diluted as it trickled down the line. No training at all came through school heads initiatives; needless to say that the heads themselves needed more-less-similar training as their staff members.

As an education policy, the new curriculum and the mission statement' of the Ministry of Education (to develop and implement education policies which provide *equal opportunity* to quality education for *all Tanzanians* and ensure development of a productive quality human resource base through education and training) were supposed to be aligned. There exists obvious differences between urban and rural location in Tanzania that can easily be identified in occupational differences and environmental structures as well as in social stratification and interaction. Thus a government (nationwide) curriculum (same content, same textbooks, same circulars ...) was deemed an appropriate unifying factor. The futility of the same is the fact that TC2005 was implemented not only by different teachers with differing training backgrounds, values, beliefs, and ethnic affiliation, but also in different schools with differing quantity and quality of resources. Certainly, no one can claim or defend uniformity in these circumstances.

Thus far, a response to the question as to how the new curriculum was managed, I propose that:

- i) At the centre, the leadership prevented the sharing of the initial agenda of the policy by excluding the key people's views and as such there was no collective acceptance that would have translated into same mission held by policy makers and practitioners.
- ii) Many of the school heads (leaders of the change at school level) portrayed weakness in their capacity as curriculum leaders. They lacked

confidence and a clearly defined vision except following what has been prescribed by Government;

iii) There was no clarity as to whether TC2005 was a small change that just needed to be accommodated in the old curriculum or a huge transformation that had to uproot teachers from their usual teaching approaches;

iv) There was no room for flexibility on the part of teachers as the content and teaching approached were prescribed and inspectors were following up to make sure the prescriptions were adhered to.

Implications

Managing a curriculum in an authoritarian way leads to resentment and festering. A participant from a non-state firm who had been fighting to get involved in TC2005 but in vain blamed the Government for so denying them opportunity to participate in the process. She had sent letters and phone calls but had received no replies. She even had made physical visits only to be denied appointment with the decision makers. As I interviewed her, she vented her anger towards the Government. Her views sum up the implications for this particular conclusion:

Let me tell you how the government is quite mistaken in this aspect. The leaders think that the officers in the Government building are the key stakeholders. This is false. This sort of thinking is like a person who lives alone and never speaks to people in the neighbourhood. Every morning, he goes out and passes them without greeting them. He forgets that these people may know more than him. But a day comes when he'll fall down and will need their help. They'd say "Leave him alone, he used to pass here without saying hello to us. He neither attends our funeral ceremonies nor does he help anybody. So just leave him alone and let him go to hell. (Source code: Hariet, Non-state institution interview 207-215)

Thus it is not a healthy situation especially in the current era when nations are talking of education as a social agenda for the advancement of democracy.

8.5 Strengths and Challenges of the Research

I now want to make a critical but humble observation to acknowledge that my study has had its own pro and cons, and I would like to begin with the positive side. I designed it to be a qualitative study given my own background, the nature of the subject and the type of data that I was intending to collect from the participants in order to answer the key research questions. The conceptual and theoretical basis utilised (Critical Policy Sociology) was appropriate as I was able to identify tensions in existence in the production and enactment of curriculum policy in my country. While the policy was intended to enrich people's lives, the power relations and attempts to sustain the status quo of the power holders was obvious.

I embarked on this particular study as an insider of the same system that I had served for a good part of my professional life, but for the past four years, I stepped aside, became a researcher and looked at the system with a critical eye. The culture in my ethnic group is that 'you should not put on fire the bush that sheltered you.' I believe I have not done so; not necessarily for the need 'to preserve the bush' but for the sake of objectivity. Thus I went into the study knowing that I needed to avoid taking too many things for granted, just as I needed to raise my curiosity even for things that looked too familiar. I kept my sensitivity to the language in the field and especially regarding the meaning of the clichés, jargon and puns so as not to overlook the actual meaning of some key issues raised by the participants. I was pretty aware that respondents may not be sure of my intention of being in their locations and in some locations I might be considered as someone intending to carry out subversive activities and likely to be denied access. Finally, I kept myself informed of the difficulties I was likely to face in data analysis that may lead to superficial descriptions

The locations I sampled for this study were of great interest to me as they belong to some of the poorest in the country (economically), and hence schools located there are negatively affected; and yet there are huge potentials of untapped natural resources. I am saying that I met and talked to the powerless segment of the country's populace and through my study, I have become their voice to the outside world. So my findings may trigger action to address some of the disparities facing the population in these areas.

As for data collection, I utilized four types of instruments as reliance on one or two would have lacked possibilities of triangulation. With these, I met so many personalities of local and international status, I entered into places I had never entered before, I got permission to read secrets that I never thought I would read in my life. The analysis part was long and tiresome but a useful learning experience of trying to bring meaning out of messy data. I presume that what I have uncovered is authentic, of good substance and other researchers and non-researchers may benefit from it.

The study had some challenges as well, and amongst them were:

- i) My insider status: I tried as much as possible to reflect on my status all along the study to avoid researcher bias, but as researchers may universally acknowledge, no study is completely bias-proof.
- ii) Some of the areas I visited were quite familiar to me and a few times, it was not as difficult to get in as it would have been to a stranger. I considered this a weakness in an objective study.
- iii) My sample was not that much big (4 districts out of 120 plus in the country). I countered this through purposive sampling. In the 4 districts, I just went to the people who I felt had the information I wanted, i.e. pupils, school heads, classroom teachers, boys, girls, parents, district education officers and school inspectors. I am certain I managed to reduce research bias substantially.
- iv) As is common with field work, I sometimes got no data from a few of the participants due to unforeseeable reasons. Rescheduling visits was a bother that I had to learn to manage.

v) I had funding constraints as my sponsorship did not allocate field work costing in my bursary. I thus met my own cost.

8.6 Future Research

The findings in this study can be used as a base from which other similar or different research studies can be made. It is therefore opening many doors. I want to identify a few of them here to illustrate:

i) There are many theories to policy analysis, and in my case, I picked Critical Policy Sociology, and was able to get the results that I have detailed in the three final chapters of the thesis. As policies are always being made and reviewed, a few more studies using my study as a basis would be appreciated through utilisation of a different theoretical framework in a different place.

ii) It does not suffice peoples' curiosity to simply look at how a policy was produced and how it was put into practice. One needs to go further than that and look at what impact it had on the larger community outside the classroom. The scope of my study was looking at the these two aspects and I would strongly advise that studying the impact of school curriculum in a longitudinal study would be a good idea.

iii) Influential forces have been noted to have had huge impact of TC2005, and there are questions regarding why, how and what are the short and long term implication of this trend. Objective studies on this may inform policy makers and consequently improve formulation of better policies.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX I: Plain Language Statement Guidelines

The University of Glasgow, charity number SC004401

1. Study title and my details

a) Principal Investigator

Full name	Contacts

b) Assistants

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c) Supervisors

1	
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d) Degree: PhD in Education

.....

2. Welcome to this study

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3. Purpose of the study

.....

4. Reasons for your being selected to participate

.....

5. You have the right to opt out

.....

6. What your participation entails

.....

7. You are assured of confidentiality

.....

8. Results

.....

9. Research funding

.....

10. Study reviewer

.....

11. Contact for further Information

In case you need any further information regarding this study, you can contact me through my contacts; Item 1(a) above, or my supervisors; Item 1(c) above. In case you have any concerns regarding the conduct of this research project, please feel free to contact Dr Georgina Wardle who is the School of Education Ethics Officer. Her email address is g.wardle@educ.gla.ac.uk.

APPENDIX II: Ethical Application

UNIVERSITY of GLASGOW FACULTY OF EDUCATION ETHICS COMMITTEE FOR NON CLINICAL RESEARCH INVOLVING HUMAN SUBJECTS

EAP1 APPLICATION FORM FOR ETHICAL APPROVAL

PLEASE NOTE

1. Please refer to the separate Guidelines while completing this form; there are notes for each question to assist you.
 1. Ethical approval *must* be obtained in writing from the Faculty Ethics Committee before any research involving human subjects is undertaken. Failure to do so may result in disciplinary procedures being instigated.
 2. Applications must be submitted *at least one month in advance* of the intended start date for the data collection. The approval process normally takes *at least* 4 weeks assuming first time approval.
 3. Important Note: Applications are reviewed on an ongoing basis as they are received. Initial review normally takes around 4 weeks. At designated holiday periods e.g. Christmas (when the University is closed) this process may well take longer.
 4. This application form should be typed, not hand written. Handwritten applications will not be processed and will be returned to the applicant.
 5. All questions must be answered. "Not applicable" is a satisfactory answer where appropriate.
 6. 6. When submitting your complete application for consideration you will need to include: the Ethics Application Form, the Applicant's Checklist, Plain Language Statement(s), Informed Consent Form(s), and any other supporting documentation as appropriate.
 7. Your application form and all supporting documentation *must* be submitted in electronic *and* paper form. Failure to submit both may result in a delay to your application being considered and any final decision being made by the Ethics Committee.
- Completed application forms and any accompanying documents should be sent to: Mrs Terri Hume, Ethics Secretary, Room 425b, St Andrew's Building, 11 Eldon Street, Glasgow G3 6NH.

Please note: the Ethics Committee will give no final decision UNLESS both the electronic AND signed paper copies of the application have been received.

UNIVERSITY of GLASGOW

**FACULTY OF EDUCATION ETHICS COMMITTEE FOR NON CLINICAL
2 RESEARCH INVOLVING HUMAN SUBJECTS**

3 EAP1 APPLICATION FORM FOR ETHICAL APPROVAL

This application form should be typed, *not* hand written. Handwritten applications will not be processed and will be returned to the applicant. **All questions must be answered.** “not applicable” is a satisfactory answer where appropriate. (NB: In Word format, click on shaded area within box to enter text.)

4 1. Applicant Details

1.1 Project Title:

CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT IN TANZANIA: An Investigation of the Formulation, Management and Implementation of the 2005 Curriculum Reform in Selected Disadvantaged Districts

1.2 Name of Applicant:

PETER SALUM KOPWEH

1.3 Matriculation or Staff Number:

0909328

1.4 Department/Centre within Faculty of Education

CURRICULUM STUDIES

1.5 This Project Is:

Staff Research Project

☐

Postgraduate Research

V

Externally Funded Project

☐

Undergraduate
Dissertation

☐

Other

☐

please describe:

1.6 Course Title:

(If you are a student please state the title of your course, for example, PG Cert in Early Childhood Education; BEd Music, etc)

PhD in Education

1.7 Researcher(s) (and Supervisor(s) where appropriate)

Researcher(s)		PHONE	FAX	EMAIL (This MUST be a University of Glasgow e-mail address)
4.1.1.1.1.1.1	4.1.1.1.1.1.2 TITLE & SURNAME			
Mr. KOPWEH	PETER	+44 776 092 4288, +44 787 569 6785		p.kopweh.1@research.gla.ac.uk

Principal Supervisor(s) (where applicable)

4.1.1.1.1.1.4	4.1.1.1.1.1.5 TITLE & SURNAME	PHONE	FAX	EMAIL
Prof. MENTER	Ian	0141 330 3480		i.menter@educ.gla.ac.uk
Dr. HULME	Moir	0414 330 3411		m.hulme@educ.gla.ac.uk

1.8 Investigators' qualifications, experience and skills: For student applicants only

Briefly describe the qualifications and outline the experience and skills relevant to this project that the researchers and any supporting staff have. (maximum 100 words).

Student:

1. Have worked in the education sector in Tanzania as a classroom teacher, curriculum developer, teacher trainer and policymaker.
2. Have studied education at undergraduate (BEd.) and postgraduate (MA Ed.) levels.
3. Have attended Advanced Research Methods Course and Research Ethics sessions.

Research Supervisor:

Menter, I.: Experienced supervisor of doctoral research.

Hulme, M.: Recent completion of own PhD and other supervision experience.

1.9 External funding details

Note. If this project is externally funded, please provide the name of the sponsor or funding body.

Sponsor/Funding Body: Ministry of Education, Government of Tanzania

2.1 Period of ethical approval applied for. NB: Not date of submission of application to Ethics Office but date of intended commencement of data collection.

(dd/mm/yy) (dd/mm/yy)

From: 15/12/2010 To: 31/12/2011

2.2 Justification for the Research (use no more than 100 words)

Why is this research significant to the wider research community?

Tanzania has had 5 curriculum reforms since 1961. The latest one was in 2005, and was intended to introduce a total paradigm shift both in content and t/learning methods. To-date, no comprehensive studies exist regarding implementation of these reforms at different levels, thus creating room for success in implementation to be taken for granted. This study considers this latest reform some 6 years after commencement, in order to establish its conceptual background, management and implementation at various levels of the education system. This study will illustrate the role of the different actors in the process, relevance of the new curriculum and how it was managed. These findings will inform future curricula reforms and contribute to scholarship on theory and management of curriculum.

What are the benefits, if any, to the participants?

For taking part in this study, the Ministry officials will get an opportunity to reflect on their practices and how these have impacted on the districts, schools and teachers' colleges. The District officials, teachers, students, parents and representatives of international and non-state institutions will be availed of an opportunity to:

- i) voice their concern on curriculum problems and provide clarification on related issues,
- ii) get information on certain aspects of the study e.g. background, quantity of other participants in the study, and
- iii) informed on the possible uses of the study findings.

Such an opportunity may raise their esteem for being picked to be among the providers of information for this study.

2.3 Research Methodology and Data Collection

2.3A Method of data collection (Tick as many as apply)

Questionnaire (attach a copy)

Interviews (attach a copy)

Participant observation (attach an observation proforma)

Audio-taping interviewees or events (with consent)

Focus Group (attach proposed questions and recording format)

Other (please provide details - maximum 50 words)

2.3B All Applicants

Please explain the reason for the particular chosen method, the estimated time commitment required of participants and how the data will be analysed (Use no more than 250 words).

Likert scale questionnaires (LSQs)

These are planned separately for teachers/college tutors (23 questions) and District education officers and inspectors (22 questions). The questionnaires are intended to seek their opinions on the 2005 Tanzania curriculum reform. Designed in a rating scale of 1-4 (Strongly disagree-Strongly agree), the LSQs will be administered in-person with clear instructions to the participants that they should feel free to leave out any question/s they feel inappropriate. Expected time: 15-20 minutes. The filled-in questionnaires will be coded and the responses cleaned, organised, ready to be entered in computer developed spreadsheets for analysis.

Focus group discussions (FGDs)

Planned for separate groups of parents (8 questions) and students (7 questions) with between 4 -6 members in each group. FGD has been picked due to its potentiality to empower participants to speak out their minds. It is economical in that I shall collect large amount of data in a short time. As the study will be conducted in rural settings and hence likely to have some illiterate parents in the sessions, FGDs will encourage such people to contribute freely and in the local language. Expected time: 30-40 minutes. Data will be coded to generate description of people, settings and thematic categories. These will form the basis of discussion and interpretation.

Semi-structured interviews (SSIs)

This method is intended for (i) International financial institutions locally-based, (ii) Non-state local institutions that participate in education, (iii) Ministry officials and (iv) Schools and teacher training college principals. SSIs are favoured because of their potentiality to put the respondents at the centre of consideration as regard to their views. By taking part in the SSIs sessions, participants would be availed opportunity to think about their position, values and opinions on curriculum reform; and consequently arrive at certain level of fulfilment through own reasoning and reflection. Expected time: 30-45 minutes. Data will be coded to generate description of people, settings and thematic categories. These will form the basis of discussion and interpretation.

5 2.4 Confidentiality & Data Handling

2.4A Will the research involve:

Anonymised samples or data (i.e., an *irreversible* process whereby identifiers are removed from data and replaced by a code, with no record retained of how the code relates to the identifiers. It is then impossible to identify the individual to whom the sample of information relates)? ☐

De-identified samples or data (i.e., a *reversible* process whereby identifiers are replaced by a code, to which the researcher retains the key, in a secure location)? ☒

Subjects being referred to by pseudonym in any publication arising from the research?

Complete anonymity of participants (i.e., researchers will not meet, or know the identity of participants, as participants are part of a random sample and are required to return responses with no form of personal identification)? ☐

Any other method of protecting the privacy of participants? (eg. use of direct quotes with specific, written permission only; use of real name with specific, written permission only) ☐

If “any other method of protecting the privacy of participants” Please give details:

2.4Bi Which of the following methods of assuring confidentiality of data will be implemented?

Tick all that apply

☐ data to be kept in locked filing cabinets

☐ data and identifiers to be kept in separate, locked filing cabinets

☐ access to computer files to be available by password only

☐ storage at University of Glasgow

☐ stored at another site

If stored at another site; please give details: i.e. Address

2.5 Access to Data

2.5A Access by named researcher(s)/supervisor(s) only ☐

2.5B Access by people other than named researcher(s)/supervisor(s) ☒
Please explain by whom and for what purpose

- i) Two research assistants - to be indentified after arrival in Tanzania. They will assist in data transcribing only.
- ii) I will arrange that they sign a written a confidentiality agreement not to disclose to anyone, any information that they will come across during the transcription exercise. This agreement will be posted to the GoU School of Education Ethics Committee, and a copy to my supervisors.

2.5C Destruction of data - paper (*and electronicif applicable*)

Please state when and how you intend to destroy the data you have collected.

- i) Data in paper form will be secured from the time of collection (2011) to 2013 and shredded.
- ii) Soft copies will be secured in my personal laptop computer and assessed via password / passwords known to me. They will be destroyed in December 2018.

2.6 Recruitment

Please explain in detail how you intend to recruit participants_

- i) Students and teacher trainees: Will be picked through their school heads and principals.
- ii) Teachers/college tutors: Will be picked trough school heads and principals.
- iii) School heads and college principals: In each school and college to be visited, the head and deputy head will be requested to participate.
- iii) Parents: They will be picked through the school and college heads. However, each parent will have to sign their own written agreement; and in the case of illiterate parents, I will read to them the Plain Language Statement and the Consent Form. Their consent will be signified by a thumb 'signature'.
- iv) District education officers and inspectors: In each district, the district education officer and the district inspector of schools and their deputies will be requested to participate.
- v) International institutions: The education attaché in each of the selected institutions will be requested to participate through their Heads of Mission.
- vi) Non-government institutions: The CEO of each institution will be requested to participate.
- vii) Ministry officials: These are high ranking officials and curriculum developers. They head various ministry departments and institutions and thus participate in curriculum decisions. They are therefore picked on the basis of their positions.

2.7 Dependent Relationship Are any of the participants in a dependent relationship with any of the investigators, particularly those involved in recruiting for or conducting the project? *For example, a school pupil is in a dependent relationship with their teacher. Other examples of a dependent relationship include student/lecturer; patient/doctor; employee/employer.*

YES ☐ NO ☒

(If YES, please explain the relationship and the steps to be taken by the investigators to ensure that the subject's participation is purely voluntary and not influenced by the relationship in any way.)

Working as a desk officer at the ministry, my department (Office of the Commissio no direct relationship with schools or teachers. However, acknowledging that the 'ministry' status may affect some of the participants especially in the schools, coll districts, I will ensure that the written agreements to participate voluntarily in the are discussed and filled prior to commencement of any data collection activity.

2.8 *Will the research include participants with mental health difficulties or a disability?*

YES ☐ NO ☐

(If YES, please explain the necessity of involving these individuals as research subjects (no more than 50 words)):

As my respondents will be picked from different social and professional b
I can only be certain that at school/college and in the offices, there wil
one with mental disability. As for the physically disabled, a possibility m
and if it so occurs, I would not discriminate against them if they have be
on the basis of having the information required.

2.9 Location of Research

University of Glasgow

5.1.1.1.1.1.1.1 ☐

Outside Location

5.1.1.1.1.1.1.2

Please provide name and address of any outside locations.

2.10 Participants

2.10A Target Participant Group Please indicate the targeted participant group by ticking all boxes that apply. Expand any responses necessary in the space provided at "Other".

- ☒ Students or staff of this University ☐ Adults (over 18 years old and competent to give consent)
☐ Children/legal minors (under 18 years old) ☒
☒ Other (please give details. Max. 50 words): ☐

B

N

Number of Participants (if relevant give details of different age groups/activities involved)

Age group	Description	Qty	Activity involved
Adults (18+)	Teachers (primary, secondary & colleges)	51	Likert scale questionnaire
	District education officers and inspectors	32	Likert scale questionnaire
	Parents/board members for schools/ colleges	36	Focus group discussion
	Teacher trainees	6	Focus group discussion
	School/TTC heads & deputies	34	Semi-structured Interview
	Representatives of international insts.	4	Semi-structured Interview
	Officials from non-state education insts.	6	Semi-structured Interview
	Ministry of Education officials	20	Semi-structured Interview
Under 18	Primary school pupils	40	Focus group discussion
	Secondary school students .	40	Focus group discussion

2.11 Dissemination of results. NB: Take account of age appropriateness of participants

2.11A Results will be made available to participants as:

- 5.1.1.1.1.1.3 Written summary of results to all ☐ **Copy of final manuscript** (eg thesis, article, etc.) **V**
presented if requested
- Verbal presentation to all**
(information session, debriefing etc.) ☐ **Presentation to representative participants** (eg. CEO,school principal) ☐
- 5.1.1.1.1.1.4 Undergraduate Dissertation ☐

Other or None of the Above

Please explain:

After my study, I will offer to present a paper to share the findings. The annual national education conference can be targeted for this purpose.

2.11B Results will be made available to peers and/or colleagues as: (Tick all that apply)

- Undergraduate Dissertation** ☐ **Journal article(s)** **V**
- Thesis (e.g. PhD)** **V** **Book** ☐
- Postgraduate Submission** ☐ **Conference papers** **V**

Other or None of the Above

Please explain:

5.1.1.1.2 3 Ethical Issues

3.1 Will subjects be identified from information held by another party? (eg. A Headteacher, or a Local Authority, or Glasgow University class lists)

YES **V** NO ☐

If YES please describe the arrangements you intend to make to gain access to this information including, where appropriate, which multi centre research ethics committee or local research ethics committee will be applied to. (No more than 150 words)

I will apply for a research clearance from the Ministry of Education and Vocational Training as soon as I arrive in Tanzania. Processing of application and issuing of such permits to educational researchers is one of the Ministry's functions; and holders do not need any other documentation in order to go into schools. This notwithstanding, I still will observe and respect the right of participants to withdraw or decline to answer any question/s during the interviews, focus group discussions and when administering the questionnaires.

3.2 Written Permission

Please note that written permission is usually required to gain access to research participants within an organisation (e.g. school, Local Authority, Glasgow University class)

Are copies provided with this application?

YES ☐ NO ☒

OR Are they to follow?

YES ☒ NO ☐

3.3 b I will apply for research clearance from the Ministry of Education soon after my arrival in Tanzania and forward a copy to the Ethics Committee.

YES ☐ NO ☒

(If YES, please provide name and location of the ethics committee and the result of the application.)

3.4 Have you attached your Plain Language Statement(s) (PLS) for participants?

A Plain Language Statement is written information in plain language that you will provide to subjects to explain the project and invite their participation. Contact details for Supervisor and Faculty Ethics Officer MUST be included. Please note that a copy of this information must be given to the participant to keep.)

YES ☒ NO ☐

(If NO, please explain.)

As there are 6 different types of participant, I have prepared 6 versions of the Plain Language Statement.

3.5 How will informed consent be recorded by individual participants or representatives?

5.1.1.1.2.1 Signed consent form	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	5.1.1.2 Recorded verbal consent
5.1.1.2.1.1 Implied by return of survey	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	5.1.1.3 <input type="checkbox"/>
		5.1.1.4 Other

(Please specify):

For the literate individuals, informed consent will be in written form whereas for illiterate ones, it will be verbal

3.6 Have you attached to your application a copy of the consent form(s)?
The final consent form MUST be printed on University of Glasgow letter headed paper.

YES V NO ☐ (If NO, please explain.)

4 Monitoring

Please describe how the supervisor(s) will monitor the project to ensure that the research is being carried out in accordance with the approved ethics protocol (e.g. give details of regular meetings/email contact) (Maximum 50 words).

I will email my supervisors fortnightly to provide feedback on my field experience and seek their advice.

5 Health and Safety

Have you made yourself aware of local provisions for Health and Safety?

Yes. I am quite familiar with the geography and social cultural characteristics of these locations; and hence will get prepared well for any health and safety eventualities.

Are there any other specific Health and Safety issues?
Please give details

Not to my knowledge.

6 UK Government Legislation

6.1 Have you made yourself familiar with the requirements of the Data Protection Act (1998)? (See Application Guidance Notes for further information. In addition visit <http://www.gla.ac.uk/services/information/dpa/> for guidance and advice on the Act)

YES V NO ☐ If NO, please explain.

6.2 Have you made yourself familiar with the requirements of the Freedom of Information (Scotland) Act (2002)? (See Application Guidance Notes for further information. In addition visit <http://www.gla.ac.uk/services/information/foi/> for guidance and advice on the Act)

6
YES V NO ☐ If NO, please explain.

6.3 If your research involves children, have you made yourself familiar with the requirements of the Children (Scotland) Act 1995? (The full Act is available at: http://www.hmso.gov.uk/acts/acts1995/Ukpga_19950036_en_2.htm#mdi v1).

7	YES	8	V	9	NO		If NO, please explain
							Not applicable is a suitable answer
Yes and have also familiarised myself with the equivalent Tanzania Law of the Child Act of 2009.							

- The information contained herein is, to the best of my knowledge and belief, accurate.
- I have read the University's current human ethics guidelines, and accept responsibility for the conduct of the procedures set out in the attached application in accordance with the guidelines, the University's Code of Conduct for Research and any other condition laid down by the University of Glasgow Ethics Committee and the Faculty of Education Ethics Committee.
- I have attempted to identify all risks related to the research that may arise in conducting this research and acknowledge my obligations and the rights of the participants.
- I and my co-researcher(s) or supporting staff have the appropriate qualifications, experience and facilities to conduct the research set out in the attached application and to deal effectively with any emergencies and contingencies related to the research that may arise.
- I understand that **no** research work involving human participants or data can commence until **full** ethical approval has been given by the Faculty of Education Ethics Committee.

Please ensure that you submit the *applicant's checklist* with your application.

The Ethics Committee will give no final decision UNLESS both the electronic AND signed paper copies of the application have been received.

Signature

Date

9.1.1.1.1.1.1.1.1	Researcher			
9.1.1.1.1.1.1.1.2	Principal Supervisor			

The EAP1 education ethics approval form must be completed and submitted electronically and in paper form to:

Mrs Terri Hume, Ethics Secretary, Faculty Office, Faculty of Education,
University of Glasgow, Room 425b, Level Four, St Andrew's Building, 11 Eldon
Street, Glasgow, G3 6NH. E-mail: T.Hume@admin.gla.ac.uk

APPENDIX III: Informed Consent Form

The University of Glasgow, charity number SC004401

Title of Project: CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT IN TANZANIA: An Investigation of the Formulation, Management and Implementation of the 2005 Curriculum Reform in Selected Disadvantaged Districts

Name of Researcher: PETER SALUM KOPWEH

1. I confirm that I have read and understood the Plain Language Statement for the above study and have had the opportunity to ask questions.
2. I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time, without giving any reason.
3. I also understand that:
 - a) my consent will be requested for audio-taping during interviews,
 - b) copies of the interview transcripts will be returned to me for verification if I request,
 - c) my name will not be mentioned anywhere in the final report and pseudonyms or ID numbers will be used in any professional publications arising from the research,
 - e) in instances where a dependent relationship is involved, decision to opt out of the study at any stage will have no effect on relationship, grades, assessment, or employment.
4. I agree / do not agree (delete as applicable) to take part in the above study.

_____	_____	_____
9.1.1.2 Name of Participant	Date	Signature

_____	_____	_____
9.1.1.3 Name of Person giving consent	Date	Signature

(if different from participant, eg Parent)

9.1.1.4

_____	_____	_____
9.1.1.5 Researcher	Date	Signature

APPENDIX IV: Interview Questions for School and College Heads

1.0 For how long have you been a school/college head and in how many institutions?

2.0 What is your general view/experience about curriculum changes in Tanzania?

3.0 Do you think school and college heads need to be involved when reforming the curriculum of a country? Why?

4.0 In 2005, the Government changed the school curriculum for primary and secondary schools and TTCs. How were you involved in this process?

4.0 Do you know whether there was representation of school/college heads in the Ministerial committees that spearheaded the 2005 curriculum reform? (Please elaborate).

5.0 How did you receive information that you were supposed to start implementing a new curriculum; and from whom

6.0 Management of the curriculum

6.1 Did you receive funding for implementing the new curriculum? From whom? Frequency (quarterly, biannually etc). Was it sufficient? What was the basis of this allocation? Did you get it on time? How did this situation affect teaching?

6.2 How textual resources were made available to your school/college? At what frequency (quarterly, biannually etc). Were they sufficient? What was the basis of their allocation? Did you get them on time? How did this situation affect classroom teaching?

6.3 What non-textual materials did you receive? From whom? Were they sufficient? How did this situation affect teaching?

6.4 How did you monitor implementation of the new curriculum in your school/college?

7. Communication and feedback

7.1 What ways of communication were used to communicate to and from the Ministry and your school/college regarding the new curriculum?

7.2 How effective were these ways given the physical and social context of your school/college?

8.0 Curriculum model

8.1 What do you think the new curriculum intended to achieve?

8.2 Do you think this was achieved? Please elaborate

8.3 How relevant is the new curriculum to the learners in (a) Tanzania, (b) your locality?

APPENDIX V: Interview Questions for Ministry of Education Officials

- 1.0 For how long did you/have you served in this senior position?
- 2.0 Could you please give the background to the 2005 curriculum reform in Tanzania?
- 3.0 How do you compare any previous reform you have experienced with the 2005 one?
- 4.0 What model of curriculum was aimed at in the 2005 reform process and why?
- 5.0 Do you think the intended purpose was achieved? Please elaborate.
- 6.0 Management of the curriculum reform
 - 6.1 How were funds availed to the districts?
 - 6.2 What was the basis of allocation for each district/school?
 - 6.3 Was human expertise made available to the districts/schools in order to implement the new curriculum? Please elaborate.
 - 6.4 How were books availed to the districts and schools?
 - 6.5 What non-textual materials were made available to the districts and schools and how?
 - 6.6 Did the allocation of resources consider areas that are difficult to reach in terms of communication and terrain? Please elaborate.
 - 6.7 What monitoring strategies were used by the Ministry and how effective were they? Please elaborate?
- 7.0 Communication and feedback
 - 7.1 What ways of communication were used to communicate between the Ministry and districts and schools/colleges during the curriculum process?
 - 7.2 How effective were these ways?
 - 7.3 Did districts and schools send feedback on how they were implementing the new curriculum? If so, how and if not, why?
 - 7.4 Were there any variations in the way the district in different geographical locations were implementing the new curriculum? Please give reason for this.

APPENDIX VI: Interview Questions for Non-state Local Institutions



1.0 For how long has your institution been involved in education in Tanzania?

2.0 Generally, what would you have been your institution's major contribution in educating the children of this country?

3.0 As one of the partners in education in this country, how has your institution been involved in policy changes in education?

4.0 In 2005, a new curriculum for primary and secondary schools and teachers colleges came into force in this country. What would you say was your main role in this process?

5.0 In this curriculum reform, the Ministry of Education established some technical working groups (TWGPs) to oversee the process; and different partners were represented in these committees. In which one was your representative? Why do you think s/he was assigned in this group?

6.0 Do you think the Government of Tanzania recognises the role of your institution in as far as education is concerned?

7.0 Do you think the new curriculum that came into force in 2005 is practical and relevant for a Tanzania child? Please elaborate.

*

APPENDIX VII: Interview Questions for International Institutions

1.0 Could you please elaborate briefly on how your institution has been involved in Tanzania's educational development?

2.0 As one of the partners of development in this country, how are you involved in issues regarding policy changes in education?

3.0 In 2005, there was a curriculum reform for primary and secondary schools and teachers colleges. What would you say was your main role in this process?

4.0 It was noted that in this curriculum reform, the Ministry of Education established some technical working groups (TWGPs) to oversee the process; and that development partners were represented. In which one was your representative? Why do you think s/he was assigned in this particular group?

5.0 Given your position as one of the major financiers of education in Tanzania, what are some of the problems do you encounter?

6.0 As a financier of education, don't you feel that sometimes this role elevates you to a point where you to dictate terms to the Ministry in order to qualify for funding? Please elaborate.

7.0 In the 2005 curriculum reform, the Government was required by donors to disengage from publishing secondary school books and hand over the task to private commercial publishers instead. What are your views on this?

APPENDIX VIII: Focus Group Discussion for School Committees



- 1.0 Do you think curricula should at times be changed? Please elaborate.
- 2.0 What is your general view/experience about changes of curriculum in Tanzania?
- 3.0 Have you experienced any other curriculum change in Tanzania? If so when was it?
- 4.0 When a curriculum is changed do you think parents' views need to be considered? Why?
- 5.0 Do you feel that the curriculum that the students are learning gives them the skills and knowledge they need in their communities? How?
- 6.0 Do you feel that the curriculum that the students are learning now prepares them well for (a) their communities? (b) a globalised Tanzania? Please elaborate.
- 7.0 What is the situation regarding availability of t/l materials in this school? How does this affect teaching and learning?
- 8.0 Do the goals of the new curriculum are being achieve? How?

APPENDIX IX: Focus Group Discussion for Students



- 1.0 Do you think curricula should at times be changed? Please elaborate.
- 2.0 What is your general view/experience about changes of curriculum in Tanzania?
- 3.0 When a curriculum is changed do you think students' views need to be incorporated? Why?
- 4.0 Do you feel that the curriculum you are learning now gives you the skills and knowledge you need in your community? How?
5. Do you feel that the curriculum you are learning now prepares you well for a globalised Tanzania? Please elaborate.
6. What is the situation regarding availability of t/l materials in your school i.e. Textbooks? Supplementary books? Non-textual materials?
7. Do you think the intended goals of the new curriculum are being achieved? Please elaborate.

**APPENDIX X: Questionnaires for Classroom Teachers, Teacher Trainers,
Education Administrators and School Inspectors.**



University of Glasgow | Faculty of Education

Primary school teachers, secondary school teachers and teacher trainers

DEAR PARTICIPANT

Many thanks for agreeing to participate in my research project titled *CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT IN TANZANIA: An Investigation of the Formulation, Management and Implementation of the 2005 Curriculum Reform in Selected Disadvantaged Districts*. This project is part of my Doctor of Philosophy studies at Glasgow University, UK. The questionnaire you are about to complete seeks to find out your views and opinions on the curriculum reform carried out in Tanzania in 2005.

I would like to assure you that you are considered an anonymous participant and that all your answers will be taken to be confidential. There are no *right* or *wrong* answers, and thus kindly give your answers as honestly as you possibly can. If you wish to leave out any statements that sound inappropriate to you, please be free to do so. You are also free to exercise your right to withdraw from this exercise before, during or after the research.

Instructions on how to rate your views

Please indicate your level of disagreement/agreement to each the statements given by ticking [V] ONE space only out of the FOUR given. The meaning of the numbers 1 - 4 is given hereunder:

Number	1	2	3	4
Meaning	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly agree

No.	A. RELEVENCE AND PRACTICABILITY				
	Statements	1	2	3	4
1	Changing the school curriculum in a country is regarded as necessary in order to cope with societal changes.				
2	Classroom teachers can distinguish between an irrelevant curriculum from a relevant one.				
3	Apart from enabling them to function nationally, the curriculum of a country should enable recipients to function in their communities as well.				
4	After working with this curriculum for some years now, my conclusion is that it is relevant to the children of this community.				
5	I also feel that this curriculum is relevant to the children of Tanzania as a nation within a globalised world				
No.	B. MANAGEMENT OF THE CURRICULUM REFORM PROCESS				
	Statements	1	2	3	4
1	Proper management of curriculum reform enables the intended educational goals to be attained.				
2	In my school/college, sufficient funds for implementing the new curriculum were provided.				
3	In my school/college, sufficient training was done prior to implementation of the new curriculum.				
4	My school/college received sufficient funding to procure enough books for the new curriculum.				
5	Funding for the procurement of books was received in my school bank account on time.				
6	My school was able to procure sufficient non-textual materials for the new curriculum.				
No.	C. COMMUNICATION AND FEEDBACK				
	Statements	1	2	3	4

1	In reforming curriculum, communication between the various levels of the education system is crucial.				
2	My school/college has serious problems of communication.				
3	3. My school/college has difficult terrain that makes it difficult to reach from the Ministry.				
4	4. The Ministry/District tried its best to send as much information as possible before commencement of the new curriculum.				
5	5. Apart from the conventional means of communication, mobile phones and emails were used to send and receive information between the Ministry/District and my school.				
6	6. The radio, newspapers, TV and posters were used to publicise the new curriculum.				
No.	D. MONITORING AND FEEDBACK				
	Statements	1	2	3	4
1	Monitoring and providing feedback is an important aspect of a curriculum reform process.				
2	In my school, the head was able to monitor implementation of the curriculum effectively because s/he is well facilitated.				
3	The school inspectors have visited my school between more than 10 times since 2005.				
4	The school gets feedback /reports of these visits				
5	These visits/reports are quite helpful in making improving on the weak areas noted.				
6	I feel that the intended goal for the 2005 curriculum in Tanzania is being achieved.				



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District Education Officers, District Academic Officers and District School Inspectors.

DEAR PARTICIPANT

Many thanks for agreeing to participate in my research project titled *CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT IN TANZANIA: An Investigation of the Formulation, Management and Implementation of the 2005 Curriculum Reform in Selected Disadvantaged Districts*. This project is part of my Doctor of Philosophy studies at Glasgow University, UK. The questionnaire you are about to complete seeks to find out your views and opinions on the curriculum reform carried out in Tanzania in 2005.

I would like to assure you that you are considered an anonymous participant and that all your answers will be taken to be confidential. There are no *right* or *wrong* answers, and thus kindly give your answers as honestly as you possibly can. If you wish to leave out any statements that sound inappropriate to you, please be free to do so. You are also free to exercise your right to withdraw from this exercise before, during or after the research.

Instructions on how to rate your views

Please indicate your level of disagreement/agreement to each the statements given by ticking [V] ONE space only out of the FOUR given. The meaning of the numbers 1 - 4 is given hereunder:

Number	1	2	3	4
Meaning	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly agree

No.	A. ROLE OF DISTRICT EDUCATION OFFICERS AND INSPECTORS				
	Statements	1	2	3	4
i	District education officers and inspectors have an important role to play in the reforming of school curricula in a country.				

ii	During the 2005 curriculum reform process in Tanzania, District Education Officers and Inspectors got opportunity to give their views.				
lii	As far as I am aware, the final curriculum produced did accommodate opinions and views of the District Education Officers and Inspectors				
No	B. MANAGEMENT OF THE CURRICULUM REFORM PROCESS				
.	Statements	1	2	3	4
i	Proper management of curriculum reform enables the intended educational goals of a country to be attained.				
ii	In my district, sufficient funds for implementing the new curriculum were provided.				
iii	3. In my district, sufficient training to district officials, inspectors, ward education co-ordinators and teachers was done prior to implementation of the new curriculum.				
iv	Schools in my district received sufficient funding to procure books for the new curriculum.				
v	Funding for the procurement of books was received in schools on time.				
vi	My district was able to procure sufficient non-textual materials for the new curriculum and avail them to schools.				
No	C. COMMUNICATION				
.	Statements	1	2	3	4
i	In reforming curriculum, communication between the various levels of the education system is crucial.				
ii	My district has serious problems of communication.				
iii	My district has difficult terrain that makes it difficult to reach from the Ministry.				
iv	The Ministry of Education tried its best to send as much information as possible before commencement of the new curriculum.				
v	Apart from the conventional means of communication, mobile phones and emails were used to send and receive information between the Ministry and the District.				
vi	The radio, newspapers, TV and posters were used to publicise the new curriculum.				
No	D. MONITORING AND FEEDBACK				
.	Statements	1	2	3	4
i	Monitoring and providing feedback is an important aspect of a curriculum reform process.				
ii	In my district, the education team and inspectors were able to monitor implementation of the curriculum effectively as they were well-facilitated.				
iii	The district team was able to visit the schools regularly because we have vehicles and motorcycles.				
iv	The Ministry of Education carries out monitoring visits occasionally.				
v	The district education and inspection offices get feedback /reports of these visits				
vi	These visits/reports are quite helpful in making improving on the weak areas noted.				
vii	I feel that the intended goal for the 2005 curriculum in Tanzania is being achieved.				



Questionnaire for District Education Administrators

Dear Participant

Many thanks for agreeing to participate in my research project titled *CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT IN TANZANIA: An Investigation of the Formulation, Management and Implementation of the 2005 Curriculum Reform in Selected Disadvantaged Districts*. This project is part of my Doctor of Philosophy studies at Glasgow University, UK. The questionnaire you are about to complete seeks to find out your views on the 2005 curriculum. I would like to assure you that you are considered an anonymous participant and that your views will be confidential. There are no *right* or *wrong* answers, and thus kindly give your answers as honestly as you possibly can. If you wish to leave out any statements that you feel inappropriate, please be free to do so. You are also free to exercise your right to withdraw from this exercise at any stage.
(Peter S Kopweh)

Instructions on how to rate your views

Please indicate your level of disagreement or agreement to each the statements given by ticking [V] ONE space out of the FOUR given. The meaning of the numbers 1 - 4 is given hereunder:

Number	1	2	3	4
Meaning	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly agree

No.	A. ROLE OF DISTRICT EDUCATION OFFICERS AND INSPECTORS				
	Statements	1	2	3	4
i	I am of the view that when the school curriculum is changed, the opinions of district education staff and inspectors need to be incorporated.				
ii	As far as I am aware, the new curriculum produced in 2005 accommodated views of district education staff and inspectors				

No.	B. MANAGEMENT OF THE CURRICULUM REFORM PROCESS				
	Statements	1	2	3	4
i	Good management and administration at the district level enables attainment of curriculum goals.				
ii	In my district, sufficient funds were provided for implementing the planned activities for the new curriculum.				
iii	District education staff and teachers in my schools were trained in preparation for the new curriculum.				
iv	My district received funding to buy textbooks and teachers' guides for the new curriculum.				
v	Funding for the procurement of books was disbursed to schools' bank accounts on time.				
vi	My district was also provided with funds for procurement of slates, science equipment etc. for the new curriculum.				
vii	Funding for buying books and other materials was received early enough to enable teachers to get prepared for the new curriculum.				

No.	C. COMMUNICATION AND FEEDBACK				
	Statements	1	2	3	4
i	In my view, when a curriculum is changed, communication and feedback between the various levels of the education system is important.				
ii	In my view, when a curriculum is changed, it is important to inform				

	education stakeholders (e.g. teachers, parents,).				
iii	During the 2005 curriculum reform process, the Ministry of Education kept my office informed.				
iv	During the 2005 curriculum reform process, the Ministry informed other education stakeholders.				

In the following statements (v and vi), give brief descriptions

v. Given the location of your district and available facilities, the following means of communication can be used to contact your office:

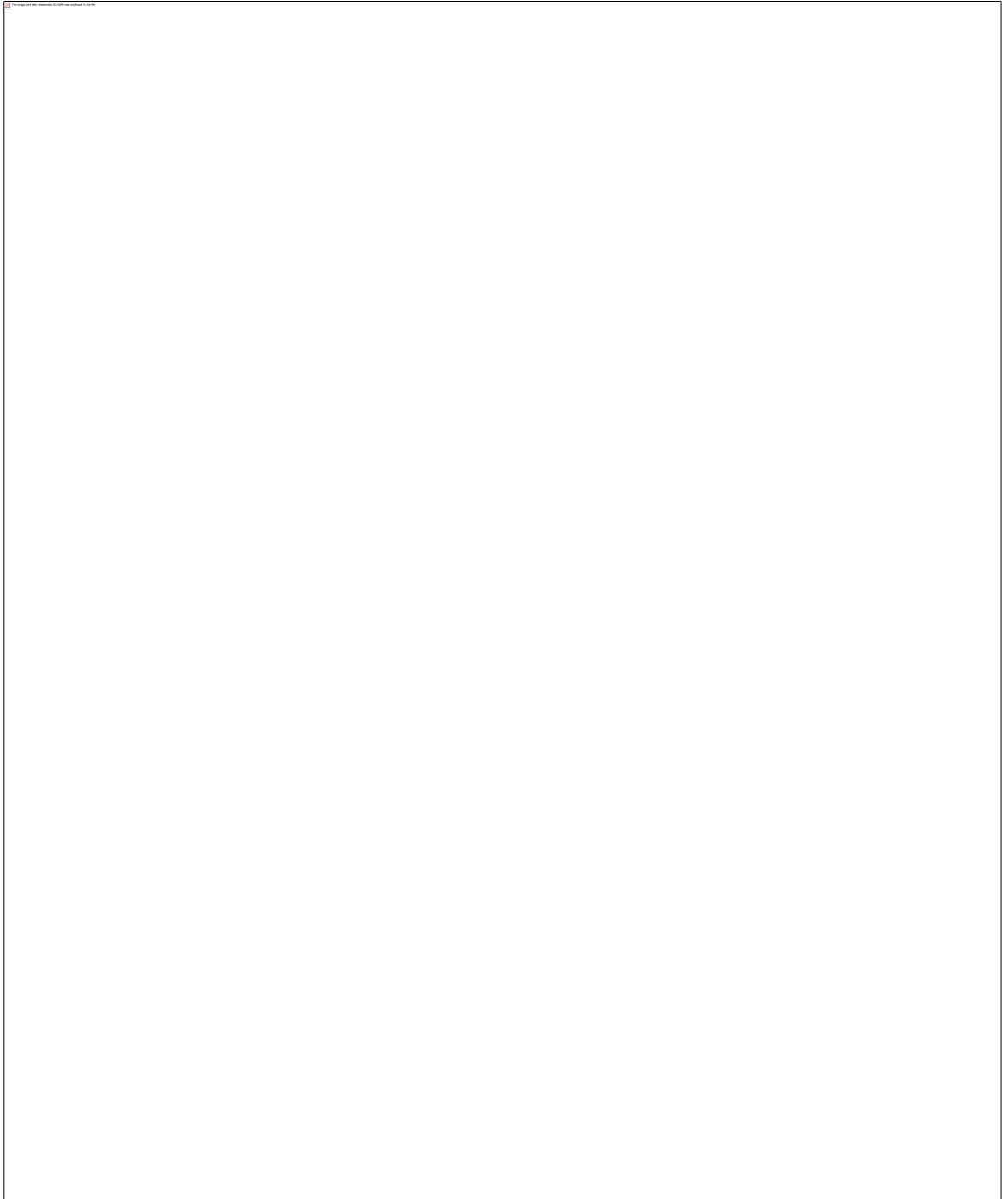
- a), b)
c), d)
e), f)

vi. Out of the above means of communication, which ones were used to communicate with your office regarding the new curriculum?

- a), b)
c), d)

No.	D. MONITORING AND FEEDBACK				
	Statements	1	2	3	4
i	Monitoring and providing feedback is an important aspect of a curriculum reform process.				
ii	In my district, the inspectorate office has facilities to enable them monitor implementation of the curriculum in schools.				
iii	I am happy with the frequency of the monitoring visits to schools carried out by the district inspectorate team.				
iv	During the 2005 reform process, the Ministry of Education carried out some monitoring visits in my district.				
v	The Ministry sent feedback to the districts after monitoring visits.				
vi	I feel that the intended purposes for the 2005 curriculum in Tanzania are being achieved.				

APPENDIX XI: Research Clearance letters



APPENDIX XII: Teacher Training Advertisement

APPLICATION FOR SHORT (SPECIALIZED) TERM TEACHER TRAINING PROGRAMME FOR SECONDARY SCHOOLS,

MARCH - APRIL 2007

The Permanent Secretary of the Ministry of Educational and Vocational Training is pleased to announce **6,000** vacancies for a specialized teacher training (4 weeks) for Form 6 school leavers with two principal passes in subjects taught in secondary schools. Applications can also be received from school leavers with Full Technician Course-FTC), and those with Business Education qualifications. In their applicants, candidates should indicate their gender, and age. The course will be conducted from 12/03/2007 to 07/04/2007. Applications should be sent to the nearest teachers college as follows:

College	Regions	Qty
Morogoro TTC, P O Box 691, Morogoro, e-mail: ngonyaniwa@yahoo.co.uk , Tel. 0754 288766	Dar es Salaam, Morogoro	850
Mpwapwa TTC, P O Box 34, Mpwapwa e-mail: mpwatc@do.ucc.co.tz , Tel. 0784462814	Singida, Dodoma	800
Tabora TTC, P O Box 320, Tabora, e-mail: taboratc@taboraonline.com , Tel. 0754 979109	Tabora, Kigoma	400
Tukuyu TTC, P O Box 554, Tukuyu, e-mail: tukuyutc@alma.co.tz , Tel. 0754 080907	Mbeya, Rukwa	550
Butimba TTC, P O Box. 1411, Mwanza, e-mail: luimsoffe@yahoo.com , Tel 0754 275584	Mwanza, Shinyanga	850
Kleruu TTC, P O Box 549 Iringa, e-mail: Klerruutc@iringanet.co.uk , Tel. 0784 433364	Iringa	300
Monduli TTC, P O Box Monduli, e-mail: dvdmarandu@yahoo.co.uk , Tel. 0754 319504	Arusha, Manyara	550
Bunda TTC, P O Box 1 Bunda, e-mail: bundatc@hotmail.com , Tel. 0282621028	Kagera, Mara	450
Korogwe TTC, P O Box 533, Korogwe, e-mail: kortc@habari.co.tz , Tel. 0784678136	Tanga, Kilimanjaro, Pwan	850
Mtwara TTC, P O Box 506, Mtwara, e-mail: mtwara@tctanzania.com , Tel. 0784383151	Ruvuma, Lindi, Mtwara	400

Note: Application letters should attach true copies of Form 4 and 6 certificates and 2 passport size photographs. Applicants should indicate 2 subjects that the applicant would be ready to teach. Results for selected candidates will be given on 05/03/2007 through regional Education Officers. 4. Upon arrival in colleges, candidates will be required to show original copies of certificates mentioned in 1 above for registration. Applications will only be received from candidates who have completed Form 6 between 1998 and 2006. Candidates are required to pay their own fares to the respective colleges as well as to the districts they will be posted to. The Government will refund them accordingly. Tuition fees, meals and cost for training materials will also be met by the Government, but candidates will also be required to meet their own cost for laundry, hygiene, crockery, and other personal expenses. Successful candidates will be licensed to for a period of 4 years and will then be posted as secondary school teachers. The deadline for receiving applications is 28/02/2007. This advert can also be accessed via the Ministry of Education website: www.moe.go.tz

Hamisi O. Dihenga
Permanent Secretary
Ministry of education and vocational training
PO Box 9121, DAR ES SALAAM

APPENDIX XIII: Poverty Profiling for the Study Districts

	Poverty indicators (as per National Bureau of Statistics)																					
	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M	N	O	P	Q	R	S	T	U	V
D1	230164	27	6025	0.004	40	25	10.8	73	54	59	67	11.5	9.9	27	1.5	60	2.5	40	6.0	80	105	174
D2	132045	72	5048	0.014	32	24	11.5	83	66	44	66	3.1	2.8	44	5.0	68	6.2	36	10.2	50	98	160
D3	95614	20	4766	0.004	51	28	11.8	71	51	49	52	5.9	3.9	2.2	1.2	59	1.4	31	3.9	79	94	152
D4	203102	15	3673	0.004	34	30	9.4	62	41	47	51	8.4	6.5	1.5	0.8	51	1.4	34	2.4	79	97	158
D5	187428	69	7477	0.009	40	27	10.5	58	38	59	102	7.4	7.1	5.5	0.3	63	0.6	35	0.6	90	105	173
D6	40801	68	3380	0.020	43	23	9.9	77	58	66	60	3.1	2.7	10.0	1.5	71	1.0	29	11.5	81	107	176
D7	44107	25	2928	0.008	22	25	10.8	81	66	63	77	5.2	4.2	28	1.9	50	1.9	31	5.8	80	96	158
D8	419970	103	8051	0.013	16	23	8.8	86	69	63	74	5.7	3.6	45	3.5	48	1.5	0.4	13	70	91	147
D9	261004	83	4910	0.017	31	23	9.5	85	70	50	76	9.7	4.6	53	6.6	50	2.2	27	7.8	63	115	192
D10	249572	31	4604	0.007	32	25	6.8	72	55	64	82	8.6	7.6	39	5.0	45	1.1	37	4.8	80	1.4	172
D11	144359	26	-	-	38	24	6.9	63	67	76	18.9	17.4	29	29	1.2	41	0.1	35	0.1	83	108	179
D12	243580	409	8088	0.051	17	24	12.2	91	83	51	80	4.5	2.0	77	21.0	70	13.1	44	36.6	32	75	118
D13	118065	44	Data not available as was curved out of B8 in 2007																			
D14	279423	66	4419	0.015	33	27	8.4	79	64	63	77	5.2	4.2	28	1.9	50	1.9	31	5.8	80	96	158

Source: Key to entries

A	Total population, 2002
B	Population, 2002, per km ²
C	Population per health facility, 2002
D	Number of health facilities per km ²
E	Percent of the population below the poverty line, 2000/01
F	Percent of households which are female-headed or headed by person 60/older, 2002
G	Percent of children under 18 who are orphaned, 2002
H	Percent of males 15+ who are literate, 2002
I	Percent of females 15+ who are literate, 2002
J	Primary education pupil-teacher ratio, 2004
K	Primary education pupil-classroom ratio, 2004
L	Percent of children 7-13yr - economically active, 2002
M	Percent of children 7-13yr, economically active but out of school, 2002
N	Percent of rural h/holds using piped water, 2002
O	Percent of households with flush toilet, 2002
P	Percent of households owning a radio, 2002
Q	Percent of households owning a telephone, 2002
R	Percent of households owning a bicycle, 2002
S	Percent of households having electricity, 2002
T	Percent of h/olds with poor quality housing materials, 2002
U	Infant mortality rate (per 1,000 live births), 2002
V	Under-five mortality rate (per 1,000 live births), 2002

Source: United Republic of Tanzania/REPOA (2005) Poverty and Human Development Report 2005

APPENDIX XIV: A Sample of Minutes of EMAC Meeting, on 27&29th April 2009

1.0 Attendance

1.1 In attendance:

1. Ag. Commissioner of Education, MoEVT - Chairperson
2. Deputy Director, Tanzania Institute of Education
3. Director, Teacher Education, MOEVT
4. Ag. Director for Secondary Education, MOEVT
5. Legal Officer, MoEVT
6. Chief Inspector of School, MOEVT
7. Executive Secretary, Copyright Society of Tanzania
8. Executive Secretary, Book Sellers Association of Tanzania
9. For Director, Policy and Planning, MoEVT
10. Executive Secretary, Publishers Association of Tanzania
11. EMAC Secretariat, MoEVT
12. Dean, School of Education, University of Dar Salaam.
13. Secretary, Tanzania Association of Managers of Non-Government Secondary Schools and Colleges

1.2 Absent with apology

1. Director, Primary Education -MOEVT
2. Representative - Printers Association of Tanzania

2.0 Agenda

- 2.1 Opening remarks
- 2.2 Adoption of the agenda
- 2.3 Confirmation of minutes for EMAC Meeting of 17th&18th November 2008
- 2.4 Matters arising
- 2.5 Decision on evaluated works
- 2.6 AOB

3.0 Proceedings

3.1 Opening: The Chairperson opened the meeting at 13.30 hours and apologised for being late to start the meeting due to other unexpected official duties and meetings. He eventually asked members to introduce themselves.

3.1 The agenda were adopted without any change.

3.2 The minutes of EMAC 17th - 18th November 2008 were confirmed with minor corrections

3.3. There were no matters arising

Code Nos.	Title and Level	Average Points Awarded			Strengths, Weaknesses & Comments
		PQS (70)	PDQS (30)	TOTAL (100%)	
60-61/9	MLT for Form 1-4-Supplementary	56	21	77	<p>Strengths (MLT): The mobile laboratory table is made of non-toxic material and is real environmental and user friendly. MLT is easy to use, handle and store. It is also multipurpose use i.e. it can be used for different topics from science subjects. It is water- resistant and simple to improvise in locality.</p> <p>Weaknesses: The table should be a bit wider than 76cm to allow more working space for students. The wooden pulley in the electricity generating system should be replaced with a battery or a modified efficient gadget for charging the lead acid accumulator. The 2 PVC laboratory sinks/basins should also be replaced with white ceramic sinks /basins in order to enhance durability. The electrical components/ fittings need to be covered for safety and thorough protection.</p> <p>Strengths (TG): The practical manual conforms to the subject matter-physics, chemistry and biology. The practical manual has clear instructions to the teacher. The facts, concepts and figures in the manual are correct and accurate.</p>
		62	22	84	

Code Nos.	Title and Level	Average Points Awarded			Strengths, Weaknesses & Comments
		PQS (70)	PDQS (30)	TOTAL (100%)	
					Weaknesses: Some facts and concepts are vague e.g. pg 117, 125.Editing errors noted in pg 119, 120, 127, 128, 131, 132, 141 & 142 EMAC Decision: Conditional Approval
11/12	Arts and Crafts Std 1 (PPs & TG): Textbook GDY	61 53	23 22	84 75	Pupils Book Strengths 1. Syllabus topics have been well-covered 2. Organisation of the book as well as that of chapters is good. 3. Illustrations are simple and well presented. They also teach morals e.g. pg. 44 - 47- 4. Colour has been used appropriately. 5. The cover, paper weight and binding are good. Weaknesses: 1. The font and typeface should be changed as directed for this level in the EMAC Manual of Procedures Item 3.2.2 on This would reflect the correct size for this class and the right font for numbers 1, 4, 6, and 9; and letters a, g, l, t and q. 2. Exercises should be given and not guidelines as to what the teacher should do. 3. The page numbers are too small to read. 4. A few spelling errors identified should be attended to. Teacher's Guide Strengths 1. The objectives are well stated and measurable. 2. Organisation of the TG relates to the PB. 3. The teaching and learning strategies provide clear guidance to the teacher. 4. The exercises given are good. 5. The cover and paper weight are ok. 6. Cover, printing and binding is good. Weaknesses The preface needs revisiting to correct grammatical errors. EMAC Decision : Rejection
60-61/9	MLT for Form 1-4-Supplementary	56 62	21 22	77 84	Strengths (MLT): The mobile laboratory table is made of non-toxic material and is real environmental and user friendly. MLT is easy to use, handle and store. It is also multipurpose use i.e. it can be used for different topics from science subjects. It is water- resistant and simple to improvise in locality. Weaknesses: The table should be a bit wider than 76cm to allow more working space for students. The wooden pulley in the electricity generating system should be replaced with a battery or a modified efficient gadget for charging the lead acid accumulator. The 2 PVC laboratory sinks/basins should also be replaced with white ceramic sinks /basins in order to enhance durability. The electrical components/ fittings need to be covered for safety and thorough protection. Strengths (TG): The practical manual conforms to the subject matter-physics, chemistry and biology. The practical manual has clear instructions to the teacher. The facts, concepts and figures in the manual are correct and accurate. Weaknesses: Some facts and concepts are vague e.g. pg 117, 125.Editing errors noted in pg 119, 120, 127, 128,

Code Nos.	Title and Level	Average Points Awarded			Strengths, Weaknesses & Comments
		PQS (70)	PDQS (30)	TOTAL (100%)	
					131, 132, 141 & 142 EMAC Decision: Conditional Approval
308-309/8	ICT for Form 1-2 Course Book	69 57	21 24	90 81	Strengths PB: The material matches with the education level of learners and covers the syllabus topics. The organization and presentation of the content is good. Most facts and concepts are correct. The text does not explicitly infringe any of social-cultural values of Tanzania. Variety of relevant illustrations, animations, photos and figures are properly used in the text. The language used is appropriate to the level of learners. The contents adhere to the moral values of Tanzania and also do not violate any religious and political beliefs. Binding and printing is reasonably good. Weaknesses: Early computer developments start and end of a spread sheet program, extra details of negative effects of internet are skipped-should be included as per the syllabus. The book lacks prelims and end matters. Strengths TG: The objectives stated in teachers guide are realistic, measurable and match with those stated in the syllabus. Sequencing of topics /subtopics relates to that of pupil's book. There are ample and good activities that measure almost all levels of understanding. Teaching and learning strategies can enhance teaching and learning process. The guide provides new ideas, extra questions, extra examples and correct answers. The quality of paper, binding, print, type face and size is good. Weaknesses: The teachers guide does not refer to any other specific reading materials. Teachers guide does not provide prelims and end matters. EMAC Decision: Conditional Approval
144/9	Mathematics Revision Questions Form 4 Supplementary	58	28	86	Strengths PB: Most topics and subtopics of the syllabus are covered. The material does not violate socio-cultural values of Tanzania. Most of the concepts and facts in form of questions are correct. The organization and presentation of the content adheres to sound pedagogical approach. The material is also relevant to learner's age, needs and interests. With an exceptions of few topics, there are enough and good revision questions. The language used in the text is simple and can be easily understood by learners. Quality of binding and other physical qualities are reasonably good Weaknesses: There are few revision questions for the following topics vector, pg 68, statistics pg 52,,linear programming pg 32,sets pg 39, accounts pg 55. Cross cutting issues are not emphasized for instance in statistics HIV/AIDS data could be used in asking questions. There are no illustrations to motivate learners. References are not indicated in the text and at the end of the book. EMAC Decision: Conditional Approval
186-187/9	Chemistry Form 1&2 Course Book Oup	68 68	25 25	93 93	Strengths PB: The content conforms well to the syllabus and its organization is as per the pedagogical approach. The information contained in the book is correct and accurate.It also conforms well with the social-cultural values of the country The content helps learners to build positive life skills and it is relevant to the learners

Code Nos.	Title and Level	Average Points Awarded			Strengths, Weaknesses & Comments
		PQS (70)	PDQS (30)	TOTAL (100%)	
					<p>age needs and interests. There are enough, correct and good illustrations for better understanding of concepts. The assessment activities and practices are adequate in testing different levels of understanding. The cover is attractive and water resistant.</p> <p>Binding, print, type face and size are of reasonable quality.</p> <p>Weaknesses: There are no materials that can inform learners on cross cutting issues like HIV/AIDS and etc. The arrangement of subtopics in chapter 2 should be reorganized by starting with introduction, laboratory rules and safety measures, chemical warning signs first aid first aid procedures and end with chemistry apparatus</p> <p>Strengths TG: The objectives are realistic, measurable and match with those stated in the syllabus.</p> <p>Topics and subtopics are well organized and presented as per the student book. Activities provided in teacher's guide measure different levels of cognition. Teaching and learning strategies can enhance teaching and learning process. TG provides correct answers to the questions. The physical design is of reasonable quality.</p> <p>Weaknesses: Teacher's guide doesn't show any reference that could help the teacher to consult other reading materials.</p> <p>EMAC Decision: Conditional Approval</p>
188-189/9	Chemistry Form 3&4 Course Book Oup	64 66	23 24	87 90	<p>Strengths PB: The topics and subtopics conform to the syllabus and its depth and breadth of the concepts is appropriate to the level of learners. General and specific objectives are realized in the text. The arrangement of materials is good i.e. it abides to the pedagogical needs of learners. The organization and presentation of materials is as per the sound pedagogical approach i.e. they are arranged and presented by starting with simple and ending with complex concepts. The material helps learners to build positive life skills. The material does not violate socio-cultural values of the country. The material inform learners about global technology and can be applied in learner's local settings. The content in the text is appropriate and relevant to both teachers and learners. The illustrations are of high quality. The language used for communication purpose is simple and can be clearly understood by learners. Physical and design of the book is of good quality</p> <p>Weaknesses: The information on HIV/AIDS, gender and other cross cutting issues are not well addressed. In pg 121 fig 6.14 the arrow is missing and pg 247 the information is not clear. Between pg 233 and 234 there is irrelevant information/document attached. Spelling mistakes on pg 245.</p> <p>Strengths TG: The objectives match with those stated in the syllabus and are clear. The sequencing of topics and subtopics is as per the student's book. Most levels of understanding are emphasized in the text. Teachers guide provides correct answers to the students' book questions.</p> <p>Extra questions and examples are given. Physical quality standards of the book are ok.</p>

Code Nos.	Title and Level	Average Points Awarded			Strengths, Weaknesses & Comments
		PQS (70)	PDQS (30)	TOTAL (100%)	
					Weaknesses: Limited number of reference books is given for further reading. Spelling mistakes on the following pgs 5,11,and 37 EMAC Decision: Conditional Approval
184-185/9	Biology Form 1&2 Course Book OUP	57 53	21 24	78 77	<p>Strengths PB: The topics and subtopics of the chemistry syllabus are adequately covered and the depth and breadth of the concepts is appropriate to the level of learners. The organization and presentation of the concepts and facts is good. Variety of good presentation techniques and illustrations are used in the text. Concepts and facts are correct and accurate. There is adequate conformity to the socio-cultural beliefs and values of Tanzania. Life skills and crosscutting issues have been adequately addressed in the book. The content can be applied by learners in their locality and informs learners about global technology and national issues. The material is relevant and appropriate to learners' needs, age and interests as well as to teachers. Good quality illustrations have been properly used in the text. Different techniques have been applied in the presentation of the contents. Variety of activities and exercises are provided to address different competencies. The language used and communication level are appropriate to the level of learners.</p> <p>Weaknesses: There is inconsistency in writing chapter names-they should be written in title case in students' book. Pictures on pg 63 fig. 7.3 need to be modified if meant to depict students-they seem to be old ladies. Experiments on pg 206 and 207 need to be demonstrated by teachers since the procedures are not very clear. The list of key terms on pg 115 should also include Anorexia nervosa and Bulimia nervosa, marasmus, kwashiorkor and rickets. On pg 131 the list should include chyme succus entericus, gastric juice, diastema, heartburn and flatulence. On pg 202 the key terms to be added are plasmodium, transpiration pull, and root pressure. The chapters on classification (10-12) are too detailed for the intended level of learners. The component of food test in chapter 16 should be shifted to chapter 14 to bring logical order. The components of food processing preservation and storage should be discussed adequately and focusing on both traditional and modern methods of food processing, preservation and storage. The picture of a person attending an incinerator on pg 47 fig. should wear nose and mouth mask to avoid bad smell and maintain health. Work on spelling mistakes on pg 227 question 2 iv. Is it digestive track or tract?.</p> <p>Strengths TG: The objectives match well with those stated in the syllabus. The sequencing of topics and subtopics in relation to students' book is good. Different levels of understanding have been adequately addressed. The T/L strategies are appropriate</p> <p>Weaknesses: There is inconsistency in writing chapter names-they should be written in title case in teachers guide. The objectives should be addressed to individual students for example in chapters 2,5,6, 7, 8,9, etc, and also the skills to be acquired should be</p>

Code Nos.	Title and Level	Average Points Awarded			Strengths, Weaknesses & Comments
		PQS (70)	PDQS (30)	TOTAL (100%)	
					well reflected in the teaching and learning strategies. Extra questions are lacking some of the chapters eg 5,6,8,10, and 20 References are too few -given a wide coverage of the book for form 1&2. Some answers provided in teachers guide need to be revisited eg pgs 4, 5, 10, 17, 18, 25, 57 etc. EMAC Decision: Conditional Approval
14/9	Mathematics Form 1 Course Book Ed bks	51	27	78	Strengths PB: The work covers topics and subtopics from the syllabus and the arrangement of materials is appropriate to the needs of learners. The content conforms to the general and specific objectives of education. The organization and presentation of content is as per the pedagogical approach. The content does not violate any social-cultural values of Tanzania. Most of the information is correct. The content builds positive life skill to learners. Weaknesses: Pages 56-70 should be reset, it is upside down. The syllabus restricts numbers up to 1 billion pg 4,6. The content does not inform learners upon cross-cutting issues like HIV/AIDS etc.Editorial errors and other problems are observed on pgs1,2,3,4,6,9,10,11,13,15,15, 17, 18, 22, 24, 27, 28, etc Strengths TG: The objectives given in teachers guide is a copy of the syllabus. They are realistic and measurable. The sequencing of topics and subtopics in teachers guide relates to the student book. Weaknesses: Teaching and learning strategies do not show how T/L resources should be used in teaching and learning process.TG does not provide extra questions, new ideas and extra examples. Some answers are not correct in teachers guide. EMAC Decision: Conditional Approval
		49	25	74	
13/9	Mathematics Form 2 Course Book Ed bks	55	25	80	Strengths PB: The content conforms to the syllabus and general and specific objectives of education. The level of difficult is appropriate to the learners. The content organization and presentation abides to the pedagogical approach -have been arranged from simple to complex. Facts / concepts are correct and figures are appropriate and accurate. Life skills and socio-cultural values are emphasized in student books. The knowledge given in the material can be applied in their locality and informs learners upon global issues The book has good and enough exercises to measure varies level of understanding. A language and communicaton aspect is ok. Physical and design quality standards are good. Weaknesses: Some discussions are missing for example "how to obtain rationalizing factor pg 15, combined transformations pg 155, logarithmic tables and trigonometric tables should be included in the student's book especially at the end of the book. Some mistakes are noted on the following pgs vii, viii, 1,4,5,8, 12, 15, etc. Cross - cutting issues are not emphasized in the manuscript. Strengths TG: The objectives stated in teacher's guide match with those stated in the syllabus. The objectives are also clear, realistic and measurable. The sequencing of topics and subtopics in teachers guide doesn't differ from student's book. It is good in terms of physical and
		48	28	76	

Code Nos.	Title and Level	Average Points Awarded			Strengths, Weaknesses & Comments
		PQS (70)	PDQS (30)	TOTAL (100%)	
					design quality standards. Weaknesses: Teaching and learning strategies are just a copy from the syllabus and are not helpful to the teacher during instruction. Teachers guide does not provide new ideas, extra questions and examples. Teaching and learning strategies do not show clearly how the teacher should use teaching and learning resources. EMAC Decision: Conditional Approval
138/9	Mathematics Form 3 Course Book Ed bks	50 50	25 28	75 78	Strengths PB: All topics and subtopics of the syllabus are emphasized in the book. The content are well treated in terms of depth and breadth. The content conforms to the general and specific objectives of education. The arrangement, organization and presentation of materials is from simple followed by complex ones. With an exception of few mistakes most facts and concepts are correct. The content shows tolerance to different religious and political beliefs, and abides to the moral values of Tanzania. The materials are appropriate and relevant to both learners and teachers and also can be applied by learners in their locality. The illustrations used are reasonably good in terms of its correctness, clarity, balance, location, meaningfulness and relevance. The level of difficult of the language reflects the level of learners .There is no problem with grammar and exactness of the concepts. Weaknesses: Some materials are above the level of learners e.g. page 50 parabolas, page 73 probability and some are missing for the particular level for example pg 41 many to one functions pg 70 graph of inverse by reflection on $y=x$, interpretation of mean, median, mode etc. there is incorrect facts and concepts on pg 49 $-f(x)=25$ as a quadratic function, pg 59 graph of a cubic polynomial, and other incorrect information on pg 61,pg 81.The materials do not inform learners on cross-cutting issues. Strengths TG: The objectives stated in teachers guide match with those stated in the syllabus. Sequencing of the topics subtopics in teachers guide relates directly to the students book. The activities measure most levels of understanding-knowledge, comprehension, application, analysis, synthesis, and evaluation. Weaknesses: Teaching and learning strategies given in teachers guide is just a copy of the syllabus ,so it makes no difference to have a guide or a syllabus. There is no relationship between resources and strategies ie strategies do not show how resources are going to be used in classroom instruction. No extra questions and answers, no new ideas given in the teachers guide. EMAC Decision: Conditional Approval
139/9	Mathematics Form 4 Course Book Ed bks	49 53	22 23	71 76	Strengths PB: The content conforms to the syllabus and organization and presentation of content abides to sound pedagogical approach. Most information in the text is correct and conforms to socio-cultural values of Tanzania. The materials help learners to build positive life skills such as self confidence, assertiveness and self awareness. The materials inform learners upon global issues, current local/national issues and can be applied by learners in their environment. Meaningful, relevant,

Code Nos.	Title and Level	Average Points Awarded			Strengths, Weaknesses & Comments
		PQS (70)	PDQS (30)	TOTAL (100%)	
					<p>clear, and correct and variety of illustrations are properly used in the text. The text provides enough assessment activities which test most levels of cognition. The language used is simple for the level of learners. Physical and design quality standards are reasonably good.</p> <p>Weaknesses: Incorrect information on pg 122, 223,224,225,227,233,235. Figures are not accurately drawn pg 1, 3, 248, 254, 255, 257. The materials do not inform learners on the cross-cutting issues such as HIV/AIDS, Road Safety, Environmental Issues etc.- Word problems could include information on cross-cutting issues. Unnecessary repeating of statements/questions are observed on page 3, 47,48,106.The text lacks mathematical tables (logarithmic and trigonometric tables) which could be placed on last pages of the book</p> <p>Strengths TG: The objectives in teachers guide exactly match with those stated in the mathematics syllabus 2005.Topics and subtopics in teachers guide match with those written in students' book.</p> <p>Weaknesses: Teaching and learning strategies of which the author calls them lessons development stages are directly copied from the syllabus without elaboration to the teacher. They do not show how the teacher should use teaching and learning resources mentioned in classroom instruction. TG provides no new ideas, no extra questions and answers. Some answers are not correct, need to be revisited.</p> <p>EMAC Decision: Conditional Approval</p>

APPENDIX XV: Syllabus format adopted for all TC2005 subjects

English for Form 4 (S4 students) Topic 1.0, Sub-topic 1.1						
Expressing oneself	Expressing one's feelings, ideas, opinions, views and emotions	Student should be able to express personal ideas, feelings, opinions, views and emotions on a variety of issues in different contexts	The teacher to guide students to select topics for discussion from different issues e.g. road accidents, gender, HIV/AIDS, the environment	Texts on a variety of issues	Is the student able to express personal ideas, feelings, opinions, views and emotions on a variety of issues in different contexts	16

Kiswahili for Standard 3 (P3 Students) Topic 3.0 Sub-topic 3.1.						
Quality of things	Describing size and quantity	The student should be able to distinguish the quality of objects by their size and quantity	The teacher to guide the students to identify the size of objects by using simple sentences e.g. the big cups are broken	Real objects e.g. bottles, seeds, books, flowers,	Is the student able to distinguish the quality of objects by their size and quantity?	30

History for Form 2 (S2) Topic 3.0 Sub-topic 3.3						
Africa and the external world	Slavery in the Indian Ocean Seaboard and the Trans-Atlantic Slave Trade	The student should be able to explain the expansion of the slave trade in the Indian Ocean Seaboard from the 18 th Century	The teacher to guide students to sources of information on the reasons for the Oman Arabs need to dominate EA in the C18 th , and why Zanzibar became their capital city	Written sources on the West and E.A. Slave trade. Sketchy maps showing slave routes	Are the students able to explain the expansion of the slave trade in the Indian Ocean Seaboard from the C18 th ?	6

Foundations of Education for Diploma Teacher Trainees Topic 2.0 Sub-topic 2.1.						
Philosophy of Education	2.1 Concept of Philosophy of Education	The student should be able to describe Philosophy of Education, analyse branches of philosophy, and apply philosophical ideas in education.	Discuss 'philosophy of education', follow lectures on metaphysics, epistemology, axiology and logic; and characteristics of branches of philosophy and their relevance to education	Encyclopedia, poster depicting various philosophical ideas and relevant textual materials	Tests, quizzes and terminal examinations. Anecdotal records for group interaction, rating scale for co-operative school learning skills.	5

APPENDIX XVI: Researcher's Fieldwork Diary Extracts

Date	Field notes
<i>All dates deleted for anonymity purposes</i>	<i>District Education Officer: Angelus Cassim. I called Mr Cassim as soon as I arrived in the main city; it was around 02.00pm. He directed to the bus to Pangani and that he had made arrangement for accommodation at New Safari Hotel in the township; and that if I wasn't satisfied with it, he could take me to a RC hostel. It took about 1.1/2 hrs to the township and I called him after settling in the hotel. He came in for a chat in the evening. Cassim, then DEO of Mahenge District replaced a lady (Rehema Mazimbu in 2009 who was in poor relationship with the District Councilors because of her bad character and misuse of education funds. I was told that one evening she got drunk in a bar and then started dancing like a loose woman. There were some fellow district officials around and they just couldn't tolerate such behaviour and decided to leave. The DEO told me that he was summoned by a senior officer at MoEVT and told to switch working stations with the lady in order to save the face of the Govt. The promise was that in 2 years time, he'd be transferred to a district of his choice; (which I came to learn was Iringa R) where he comes from in order to prepare for his retirement in 2014. He requested me to help him; especially to talk with the current Ag. Primary Education Department at the Ministry i.e. remind him of the promise. I advised him to go and see the PS in person. The DEO offered transport to the researcher to help him visit the various schools. Cassim's office was situated adjacent to the town primary school in a quiet suburb.</i>
	<i>B2 District Inspectors Office: Situated in another quiet suburb, the DI office was a new structure constructed by MoEVT in collaboration with the district council. There were enough furniture for all the staff and when I arrived, 1 female and 2 male inspectors were working in the office. The District Chief Inspector's post was unoccupied because the holder was pursuing further studies at the university. The Ag. CI was also away for his OU exams. The 3 inspectors were very cooperative and requested that I leave my questionnaires with them and pick them the next day. They told me of transportation problems as they did not have a vehicle to ferry them around for inspection trips. They have been using the DEO's vehicle sometimes.</i>
	<i>B2Ss1 Secondary School: It is school established 16 years ago and has 2 campuses. The old campus was an old crop storage facility turned into several classrooms by partitioning it. Lower forms were still using this structure. The new structure (about 300m away) was a cement bloc with several classrooms, a staff room and the headmaster's office. Teachers have to move between the 2 campuses. The headmaster was away in town when I arrived and I had started interviewing his deputy (a young lady) when he arrived. I had to switch over to him. He's a BA holder and has headed 3-4 schools. During the discussion he proved quite wide experience in teaching and school management. Many of the staff members seem to be of young blood with diploma qualifications and a few with degrees. Around 7 staff members were away pursuing degree studies in universities. The school has no fence and members of the community were seen passing through the school campus as classes continued. Getting pupils to interview was easy after making arrangements with the deputy head; however, some teachers appeared reluctant to fill the questionnaires. They claimed that they were new to the school and so didn't have the required information.</i>
	<i>B2Ps2 Primary School (1KG, P1-7): The head teacher (James) is a young man about 27 years old and has been here for more than 7 years. He looked industrious and managing the school very well. He even had a car; something that was rather strange compared to his fellows in other districts. I asked him what other business he had that made him financially able. "Farming" he said. The school seems to have sufficient classrooms and 3 new staff houses can be seen in their final stages. One of the pupils' toilets is not used as it broke down. A student was almost killed in this incident. The teacher said that he was waiting for capitation grant or support from the district council. B2Ps2 Primary School is just about 50m.</i>

	<p>from the Indian Ocean and I was able to hear waves crushing on the sea shore during the interview. There was a KG class as well a class for kids with special needs manned by a trained SEN support lady teacher in. I took a few pictures showing pupils crammed in a classroom and a few of them in hijabs; i.e. proof of Islamic impact in this district. Coconut palm, cashew nut trees and other type of trees serve as shade creators for the kids during breaks. The head teacher's interview was conducted in his office whereas the students interview - under the trees.</p>
	<p>B1PS1 Primary School: A rural school in B1 District, on a gravel main road to the border with a nearby country. The road is being upgraded from gravel to bitumen and the dusty roofs in the village building and the school are a sign of the heavy work by a Chinese Company. Part of the school area (including the sports field) has been taken by the project and pupils complained to me. A promise by the government to procure another piece of land for a new field was yet to be fulfilled. The local elder owning the said piece of land was ready to vacate the place as soon as he's paid. The Chinese construction company has promised to do construct the new field once the land is availed. T The student were quite bitter about this and requested the researcher to help. The school tape water has also been destroyed in the road construction project, forcing pupils to cross the road to collect water from the village tape. The head teacher (Thecla) replaced a colleague (also a lady) who passed away a few years back. She is also married to the widower of this lady. She is heading a team of teachers mostly ladies; many of them older than her. She seems to manage well. During the interview she complained bitterly about lack of facilities for the new curriculum and suggested that the new curriculum could have been delayed for at least 3 years. On whether the curriculum was good, she answered in the negative. On communication, she said she can't text the DEO because it was disrespectful. Pupils were very open with me and they all seemed to have ambitions to go into professionalism. Whether this will be possible remains a mystery given the state of affairs described by the head teacher.</p>
	<p>B1Ps2 Primary School: Another rural school in B1 District and about 10 miles from the main road. I passed through bushes and unattended coconut palm farms on the way. About a mile from the school, there was a village made of mud/wooden houses with grass roofs. Fishnets could be seen drying outside many of these houses, hopefully waiting for other fishing trips next day. The Indian Ocean was just 50m. away. The school derives its name from the village. A project to provide power to the villages in this area was underway and there were a couple of pylons already erected on the way from the main road. I arrived at the school in the afternoon as the pupils were breaking for lunch. I therefore had ample time to get pupils for my focus group as well as teachers for the questionnaires. The head teacher (Inno) arranged this for me. The environment looked dry and there was hardly any signs of farming activities all around. There was one big tree where pupils were shading from the cruel tropical sun. A few others were playing football on the school sports field nearby. There were also 4-5m trees bordering the field and this was where I interviewed the pupils. The shade was not that much good though. As I was leaving, I advised the head teacher to plant more of these trees during the rainy season. They'd serve dual purpose - fuel wood (which was in great scarcity) and shading for the pupils. I hope he'll head my advice. The pupils complained a lot regarding the use of the cane and some other military-like punishments in this school. Two teachers were singled out; and I came to learn that they were a couple. It seemed the head teacher was aware of this practice, though when I was interviewing him, he said that regulations were followed properly in administering the cane. The head teacher also disclosed to me how some teachers older than him mounted a 'war' against him when he assumed the office in 2001. They even spread rumour in the village that because he was a Christian, he has introduced extra tuition classes for P7 pupils to prevent them from attending Islamic classes. The district inspectors intervened and cooled the situation.</p>
	<p>A1Ps1 Primary School: A new school (P1-6) born from an old school nearby;</p>

	<p>thanks to former education minister's initiative to break big schools into smaller ones to reduce administration problems. The head teacher (a lady) was very cooperative and managed to organize a group of parents for the focus group session. I managed to meet an old man who had come to follow up his grand-daughter's progress after learning that she was a truant. He told me that the boys parents (his son and his wife) died of AIDS and left the boy and he had to take custody of him. He said that he was not well schooled but understood the value of being highly educated. The pupils</p>
	<p>A1 is located about 60km from the main commercial city where I was stationed. I used my personal car because in my study, no funds were allocated for fieldwork. I arrived at the DEO's office (an old Arab structure) and was told that he was away for his Open University examination. His deputy looked at my research permission letter from MoEVT and informed me that they were not addressed to her office; rather to the District Executive Director. She therefore advised me to take it there; a distance of about 2 miles away. I arrived at the said office and was informed that the DED was away on some celebrations and I was directed to his secretary. The secretary's office was locked and I was told that she had a day off as her child was sick. I took up the matter with the District School Inspector who decided to take me to the schools I had picked because the law allowed her to do this. A1Ss1 Secondary School: I arrived at this school located about 20km from the township town. It's a rural ward school using buildings that were formerly of a (colonial) middle school; the buildings were still going strong, though. The school headmaster was away for official business and I was made to do with the deputy. An intelligent young man this deputy, but reluctant to be interviewed. "I'm not the headmaster" he kept on repeating. Finally, he agreed to do a questionnaire. The school is a co-ed. school and many of the girls are boarders and are provided with meals while all the boys are day students. We met some of them cycling back home as we drove away from the village in the evening. The boys go hungry, unfortunately. The students' focus group was made up of three boys and a girl and they were all good and confident speakers. When I asked them to pick between English and Kiswahili languages for the interview, they went for Kiswahili. "Because you'll get nothing from us, if we do it in English." One of them told me amid his colleagues' laughter. They were very bitter of the name 'Ward' secondary school claiming that it was degrading. They argued that if the government discriminates between what are called 'ward' schools and the others, then there should be 'ward' national examination for them. I thought that was a unique finding in my study. As I was leaving they requested me to go and tell the education minister (Dr Kawambwa who was also the MP for this area) to honour his promise of buying them steel goal posts for their football field. He had promised them during the general election campaigns. Four teachers were picked by the deputy head master to do the questionnaires; and I noted an air of reluctance on two of them. I had to stay there waiting for them to fill them. I thanked them and left with my filled questionnaires.</p>
	<p>A1Ps2 Primary School: Located just a stone throw from A1Ss1 Secondary School This school has new buildings including one teacher's house. Originally, it was located at the A1Ss1 campus. There is a broken water tape and an unroofed classroom, at times used by lower class pupils. Not possible in rainy days though. Six teachers were ready to participate in the questionnaires and a mixed group of pupils in the focus group interview. Lots of interesting information came from both. I was informed by the head teacher that the single house meant for him was used by 3 other teachers because of the serious shortages of accommodation in the village. Fortunately (or may be unfortunately) his family members were living in another village where he had established himself as his new 'home'.</p>
	<p>A2Ss1Secondary School This school is named after one of the ex-presidents of the Tanzania United Republic. It is comparatively a big school compared to the newly-established ward level schools. An un-manned wooden gate was half open and I had to navigate my car in carefully. The physical environment was made up of well-looked school buildings with many trees providing shelter</p>

	<p>for the teachers and students. The headmaster's house was un-occupied because it had developed a serious crack on its foundation. It looked a structure with poor workmanship. The headmaster talked of plans to rehabilitate it. The headmaster was a long-serving teacher with more than 10 years headship experience. He was able to arrange students for the focus group discussion and teachers for the questionnaires. He also agreed to be interviewed and gave me quite useful information. He seemed to know a lot about education problems in coastal areas of Tanzania having headed a few other schools in this area. He narrated how he was able to change the school from one of the poorly performing schools in Tanzania to one that has been moving up the performance ladder gradually. One of the reasons was that he has been informing the parents and seeking their support in almost everything.</p>
	<p>A2Tc1 Teachers' College I arrived at the TTC at around 12.00 and found the principal reprimanding a trainee who has just arrived from home after a suspension due to misbehavior. The Principal was of the view the trainee didn't go home (to his parents in the Lake Zone) because she had sent him a letter informing him that he should not come back until he hears from the college regarding his case. The principal was sitting on a chair while the student was standing attentively looking and perhaps listening carefully. The fact that he has come was proof that he was not at home. He certainly knew in his heart who was obviously wrong, he or the principal. I was offered a chair to sit on for a while as the principal finished business with the student. The student (with his pieces of luggage lying on the floor) never uttered a word during the conversation that spanned about 20 minutes. So the principal was talking alone. At times the principal addressed me with some rhetorical questions; seeking support for what she was saying about the student. I never said anything in reply. I was not sure whether she thought I was rude to her or what. When we went into her office for the interview, she narrated the whole story to me.</p>

APPENDIX XVII: List of documents analysed and their sources

	Documents	Source
1	Various education circulars dating 2003 to 2010	Ministry of Education
2	Government Policy for the provision of teaching materials for schools and colleges, 1998	Ministry of Education
3	Minutes of the Education Materials Evaluation Committee 2003-2010	Ministry of Education
4	Minutes of Basic Education Development Committee 2003-2010.	Ministry of Education
5	Parliamentary (Education) Act No 25 (1978) and its amendments	Ministry of Education
6	Parliamentary Act No. 13 (1975) i.e. establishing of the Tanzania Institute of Education	Ministry of Education
7	Government Guidelines for the procurement of school materials, 2002	Ministry of Education
8	Information Communication Technology Policy, 2007	Ministry of Education
9	Manual on the code of ethics and conduct for the public service, 2006	Ministry of Education
10	Various seminar presentation papers by Tanzania Institute staff	Tanzania Institute of Education
11	Memorandum of Agreement for publishing of TIE-authored secondary school textbooks by private publishers 2004.	Tanzania institute of Education
12	Subject syllabuses for primary schools, 2005	Tanzania Institute of Education
13	Subject syllabuses for secondary schools, 2005	Tanzania Institute of Education
14	Subject syllabuses for teacher training colleges, 2005	Tanzania Institute of Education
15	Official communication regarding TC2005 between Ministry, schools and districts	Ministry, district education offices and schools
16	Minutes of the Quality (Technical) Working Groups during TC2005 process 2003-2005	Ministry of Education
17	Minutes of the Ministry of Education Management meeting	Ministry of Education
18	Education Annual Review Reports, 2005-2010	Ministry of Education
19	Public Expenditure Tracking Survey Reports 2004-2010	Ministry of Education
20	Ministry of Education Monitoring Reports 2005-2010.	Ministry of Education
21	Secondary Education Development Plan I & II	Ministry of Education
22	Primary Education Development Plan I & II	Ministry of Education

**APPENDIX XVIII: Tanzania's macro and micro policies within which the
education sector operates**

Basic Education Master Plan

CCM Manifesto*

Education and Training Policy

Child Development Policy

Civil Service Reform Programme

Information Communication Technology Policy

Education for All (EFA) goals

Education and Training Policy

Education Sector Development Programme

Financial Management Reform Programme

Higher Education Policy

Local Government Reform Programme

National Science and Technology Policy

National Environmental Policy

Primary Education Development Plan

Secondary Education Development Plan

Private Sector Reform Policy

Secondary Education Development Plan

Tanzania Development Vision 2025

Teacher Education Development Plan

Technical Education Policy

Women Development Policy

Integrated Community Based Adult Education Programme

Complementary Basic Education Programme

National Social Welfare Policy

National Women Development and Gender Policy

**CCM is the ruling political party in Tanzania.*

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX I: Plain Language Statement Guidelines

The University of Glasgow, charity number SC004401

1. Study title and my details

a) Principal Investigator

Full name	Contacts

b) Assistants

--

c) Supervisors

10	
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d) Degree: PhD in Education

.....

2. Welcome to this study

.....

3. Purpose of the study

.....

4. Reasons for your being selected to participate

.....

5. You have the right to opt out

.....

6. What your participation entails

.....

7. You are assured of confidentiality

.....

8. Results

.....

9. Research funding

.....

10. Study reviewer

.....

11. Contact for further Information

In case you need any further information regarding this study, you can contact me through my contacts; Item 1(a) above, or my supervisors; Item 1(c) above. In case you have any concerns regarding the conduct of this research project, please feel free to contact Dr Georgina Wardle who is the School of Education Ethics Officer. Her email address is g.wardle@educ.gla.ac.uk.

APPENDIX II: Ethical Application

UNIVERSITY of GLASGOW FACULTY OF EDUCATION ETHICS COMMITTEE FOR NON CLINICAL RESEARCH INVOLVING HUMAN SUBJECTS

EAP1 APPLICATION FORM FOR ETHICAL APPROVAL

PLEASE NOTE

2. Please refer to the separate Guidelines while completing this form; there are notes for each question to assist you.
8. Ethical approval *must* be obtained in writing from the Faculty Ethics Committee before any research involving human subjects is undertaken. Failure to do so may result in disciplinary procedures being instigated.
9. Applications must be submitted *at least one month in advance* of the intended start date for the data collection. The approval process normally takes *at least* 4 weeks assuming first time approval.
10. Important Note: Applications are reviewed on an ongoing basis as they are received. Initial review normally takes around 4 weeks. At designated holiday periods e.g. Christmas (when the University is closed) this process may well take longer.
11. This application form should be typed, not hand written. Handwritten applications will not be processed and will be returned to the applicant.
12. All questions must be answered. "Not applicable" is a satisfactory answer where appropriate.
13. 6. When submitting your complete application for consideration you will need to include: the Ethics Application Form, the Applicant's Checklist, Plain Language Statement(s), Informed Consent Form(s), and any other supporting documentation as appropriate.
14. Your application form and all supporting documentation *must* be submitted in electronic *and* paper form. Failure to submit both may result in a delay to your application being considered and any final decision being made by the Ethics Committee.
Completed application forms and any accompanying documents should be sent to: Mrs Terri Hume, Ethics Secretary, Room 425b, St Andrew's Building, 11 Eldon Street, Glasgow G3 6NH.

Please note: the Ethics Committee will give no final decision UNLESS both the electronic AND signed paper copies of the application have been received.

UNIVERSITY of GLASGOW

**FACULTY OF EDUCATION ETHICS COMMITTEE FOR NON CLINICAL
11 RESEARCH INVOLVING HUMAN SUBJECTS**

12 EAP1 APPLICATION FORM FOR ETHICAL APPROVAL

This application form should be typed, *not* hand written. Handwritten applications will not be processed and will be returned to the applicant. **All questions must be answered.** “not applicable” is a satisfactory answer where appropriate. (NB: In Word format, click on shaded area within box to enter text.)

13 1. Applicant Details

1.1 Project Title:

CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT IN TANZANIA: An Investigation of the Formulation, Management and Implementation of the 2005 Curriculum Reform in Selected Disadvantaged Districts

1.2 Name of Applicant:

PETER SALUM KOPWEH

1.3 Matriculation or Staff Number:

0909328

1.4 Department/Centre within Faculty of Education

CURRICULUM STUDIES

1.5 This Project Is:

Staff Research Project

☐

Postgraduate Research

V

Externally Funded Project

☐

Undergraduate
Dissertation

☐

Other

☐

please describe:

1.6 Course Title:

(If you are a student please state the title of your course, for example, PG Cert in Early Childhood Education; BEd Music, etc)

PhD in Education

1.7 Researcher(s) (and Supervisor(s) where appropriate)

Researcher(s)		PHONE	FAX	EMAIL (This MUST be a University of Glasgow e-mail address)
13.1.1.1.1.1.1 13.1.1.1.1.1.2 TITLE & SURNAME	13.1.1.1.1.			
Mr. KOPWEH	PETER	+44 776 092 4288, +44 787 569 6785		p.kopweh.1@research.gla.ac.uk

Principal Supervisor(s) (where applicable)

13.1.1.1.1.1.4 13.1.1.1.1.1.5 TITLE & SURNAME	13.1.1.1.1.	PHONE	FAX	EMAIL
Prof. MENTER	Ian	0141 330 3480		i.menter@educ.gla.ac.uk
Dr. HULME	Moir	0414 330 3411		m.hulme@educ.gla.ac.uk

1.8 Investigators' qualifications, experience and skills: *For student applicants only*
Briefly describe the qualifications and outline the experience and skills relevant to this project that the researchers and any supporting staff have. (maximum 100 words).

Student:

1. Have worked in the education sector in Tanzania as a classroom teacher, curriculum developer, teacher trainer and policymaker.
2. Have studied education at undergraduate (BEd.) and postgraduate (MA Ed.) levels.
3. Have attended Advanced Research Methods Course and Research Ethics sessions.

Research Supervisor:

Menter, I.: Experienced supervisor of doctoral research.

Hulme, M.: Recent completion of own PhD and other supervision experience.

1.9 External funding details

Note. If this project is externally funded, please provide the name of the sponsor or funding body.

Sponsor/Funding Body: Ministry of Education, Government of Tanzania

2.1 Period of ethical approval applied for. NB: Not date of submission of application to Ethics Office but date of intended commencement of data collection.

(dd/mm/yy) (dd/mm/yy)

From: 15/12/2010 To: 31/12/2011

2.2 Justification for the Research (use no more than 100 words)

Why is this research significant to the wider research community?

Tanzania has had 5 curriculum reforms since 1961. The latest one was in 2005, and was intended to introduce a total paradigm shift both in content and t/learning methods. To-date, no comprehensive studies exist regarding implementation of these reforms at different levels, thus creating room for success in implementation to be taken for granted. This study considers this latest reform some 6 years after commencement, in order to establish its conceptual background, management and implementation at various levels of the education system. This study will illustrate the role of the different actors in the process, relevance of the new curriculum and how it was managed. These findings will inform future curricula reforms and contribute to scholarship on theory and management of curriculum.

What are the benefits, if any, to the participants?

For taking part in this study, the Ministry officials will get an opportunity to reflect on their practices and how these have impacted on the districts, schools and teachers' colleges. The District officials, teachers, students, parents and representatives of international and non-state institutions will be availed of an opportunity to:

- i) voice their concern on curriculum problems and provide clarification on related issues,
- ii) get information on certain aspects of the study e.g. background, quantity of other participants in the study, and
- iii) informed on the possible uses of the study findings.

Such an opportunity may raise their esteem for being picked to be among the providers of information for this study.

2.3 Research Methodology and Data Collection

2.3A Method of data collection (Tick as many as apply)

Questionnaire (attach a copy)

Interviews (attach a copy)

Participant observation (attach an observation proforma)

Audio-taping interviewees or events (with consent)

Focus Group (attach proposed questions and recording format)

Other (please provide details - maximum 50 words)

2.3B All Applicants

Please explain the reason for the particular chosen method, the estimated time commitment required of participants and how the data will be analysed (Use no more than 250 words).

Likert scale questionnaires (LSQs)

These are planned separately for teachers/college tutors (23 questions) and District education officers and inspectors (22 questions). The questionnaires are intended to seek their opinions on the 2005 Tanzania curriculum reform. Designed in a rating scale of 1-4 (Strongly disagree-Strongly agree), the LSQs will be administered in-person with clear instructions to the participants that they should feel free to leave out any question/s they feel inappropriate. Expected time: 15-20 minutes. The filled-in questionnaires will be coded and the responses cleaned, organised, ready to be entered in computer developed spreadsheets for analysis.

Focus group discussions (FGDs)

Planned for separate groups of parents (8 questions) and students (7 questions) with between 4 -6 members in each group. FGD has been picked due to its potentiality to empower participants to speak out their minds. It is economical in that I shall collect large amount of data in a short time. As the study will be conducted in rural settings and hence likely to have some illiterate parents in the sessions, FGDs will encourage such people to contribute freely and in the local language. Expected time: 30-40 minutes. Data will be coded to generate description of people, settings and thematic categories. These will form the basis of discussion and interpretation.

Semi-structured interviews (SSIs)

This method is intended for (i) International financial institutions locally-based, (ii) Non-state local institutions that participate in education, (iii) Ministry officials and (iv) Schools and teacher training college principals. SSIs are favoured because of their potentiality to put the respondents at the centre of consideration as regard to their views. By taking part in the SSIs sessions, participants would be availed opportunity to think about their position, values and opinions on curriculum reform; and consequently arrive at certain level of fulfilment through own reasoning and reflection. Expected time: 30-45 minutes. Data will be coded to generate description of people, settings and thematic categories. These will form the basis of discussion and interpretation.

14 2.4 Confidentiality & Data Handling

2.4A Will the research involve:

Anonymised samples or data (i.e., an *irreversible* process whereby identifiers are removed from data and replaced by a code, with no record retained of how the code relates to the identifiers. It is then impossible to identify the individual to whom the sample of information relates)? ☐

De-identified samples or data (i.e., a *reversible* process whereby identifiers are replaced by a code, to which the researcher retains the key, in a secure location)? ☒

Subjects being referred to by pseudonym in any publication arising from the research?

Complete anonymity of participants (i.e., researchers will not meet, or know the identity of participants, as participants are part of a random sample and are required to return responses with no form of personal identification)? ☐

Any other method of protecting the privacy of participants? (eg. use of direct quotes with specific, written permission only; use of real name with specific, written permission only) ☐

If “any other method of protecting the privacy of participants” Please give details:

2.4Bi Which of the following methods of assuring confidentiality of data will be implemented?

Tick all that apply

☐ data to be kept in locked filing cabinets

☐ data and identifiers to be kept in separate, locked filing cabinets

☐ access to computer files to be available by password only

☐ storage at University of Glasgow

☐ stored at another site

If stored at another site; please give details: i.e. Address

2.5 Access to Data

2.5A Access by named researcher(s)/supervisor(s) only ☐

2.5B Access by people other than named researcher(s)/supervisor(s) ☒
Please explain by whom and for what purpose

- i) Two research assistants - to be indentified after arrival in Tanzania. They will assist in data transcribing only.
 - ii) I will arrange that they sign a written a confidentiality agreement not to disclose to anyone, any information that they will come across during the transcription exercise. This agreement will be posted to the GoU School of Education Ethics Committee, and a copy to my supervisors.

2.5C Destruction of data - paper (*and electronicif applicable*)

Please state when and how you intend to destroy the data you have collected.

- i) Data in paper form will be secured from the time of collection (2011) to 2013 and shredded.
 - ii) Soft copies will be secured in my personal laptop computer and assessed via password / passwords known to me. They will be destroyed in December 2018.

2.6 Recruitment

Please explain in detail how you intend to recruit participants_

- i) Students and teacher trainees: Will be picked through their school heads and principals.
 - ii) Teachers/college tutors: Will be picked trough school heads and principals.
 - iii) School heads and college principals: In each school and college to be visited, the head and deputy head will be requested to participate.
 - iii) Parents: They will be picked through the school and college heads. However, each parent will have to sign their own written agreement; and in the case of illiterate parents, I will read to them the Plain Language Statement and the Consent Form. Their consent will be signified by a thumb 'signature'.
 - iv) District education officers and inspectors: In each district, the district education officer and the district inspector of schools and their deputies will be requested to participate.
 - v) International institutions: The education attaché in each of the selected institutions will be requested to participate through their Heads of Mission.
 - vi) Non-government institutions: The CEO of each institution will be requested to participate.
 - vii) Ministry officials: These are high ranking officials and curriculum developers. They head various ministry departments and institutions and thus participate in curriculum decisions. They are therefore picked on the basis of their positions.

2.7 Dependent Relationship Are any of the participants in a dependent relationship with any of the investigators, particularly those involved in recruiting for or conducting the project? *For example, a school pupil is in a dependent relationship with their teacher. Other examples of a dependent relationship include student/lecturer; patient/doctor; employee/employer.*

YES

☐

NO

☒

(If YES, please explain the relationship and the steps to be taken by the investigators to ensure that the subject's participation is purely voluntary and not influenced by the relationship in any way.)

Working as a desk officer at the ministry, my department (Office of the Commissio no direct relationship with schools or teachers. However, acknowledging that the 'ministry' status may affect some of the participants especially in the schools, coll districts, I will ensure that the written agreements to participate voluntarily in the are discussed and filled prior to commencement of any data collection activity.

2.8 *Will the research include participants with mental health difficulties or a disability?*

YES

☐

NO

☐

(If YES, please explain the necessity of involving these individuals as research subjects (no more than 50 words)):

As my respondents will be picked from different social and professional b
I can only be certain that at school/college and in the offices, there wil
one with mental disability. As for the physically disabled, a possibility m
and if it so occurs, I would not discriminate against them if they have be
on the basis of having the information required.

2.9 Location of Research

University of Glasgow

14.1.1.1.1.1.1.1

Outside Location

14.1.1.1.1.1.1.2

Please provide name and address of any outside locations.

2.10 Participants

2.10A Target Participant Group Please indicate the targeted participant group by ticking all boxes that apply. Expand any responses necessary in the space provided at "Other".

- ☒ Students or staff of this University
 ☐ Adults (over 18 years old and competent to give consent)
- ☐ Children/legal minors (under 18 years old)
 ☒
- ☒ Other (please give details. Max. 50 words):
 ☐

B

N

Number of Participants (if relevant give details of different age groups/activities involved)

Age group	Description	Qty	Activity involved
Adults (18+)	Teachers (primary, secondary & colleges)	51	Likert scale questionnaire
	District education officers and inspectors	32	Likert scale questionnaire
	Parents/board members for schools/ colleges	36	Focus group discussion
	Teacher trainees	6	Focus group discussion
	School/TTC heads & deputies	34	Semi-structured Interview
	Representatives of international insts.	4	Semi-structured Interview
	Officials from non-state education insts.	6	Semi-structured Interview
	Ministry of Education officials	20	Semi-structured Interview
Under 18	Primary school pupils	40	Focus group discussion
	Secondary school students .	40	Focus group discussion

2.11 Dissemination of results. NB: Take account of age appropriateness of participants

2.11A Results will be made available to participants as:

- 14.1.1.1.1.1.3 Written summary of results to all ☐ Copy of final manuscript (eg thesis, article, etc.) presented if requested **V**
- Verbal presentation to all (information session, debriefing etc.) ☐ Presentation to representative participants (eg. CEO, school principal) ☐
- 14.1.1.1.1.1.4 Undergraduate Dissertation ☐

Other or None of the Above

Please explain:

After my study, I will offer to present a paper to share the findings. The annual national education conference can be targeted for this purpose.

2.11B Results will be made available to peers and/or colleagues as: (Tick all that apply)

- Undergraduate Dissertation ☐ Journal article(s) **V**
- Thesis (e.g. PhD) **V** Book ☐
- Postgraduate Submission ☐ Conference papers **V**

Other or None of the Above

Please explain:

14.1.1.1.2 3 Ethical Issues

3.1 Will subjects be identified from information held by another party? (eg. A Headteacher, or a Local Authority, or Glasgow University class lists)

YES **V** NO ☐

If YES please describe the arrangements you intend to make to gain access to this information including, where appropriate, which multi centre research ethics committee or local research ethics committee will be applied to. (No more than 150 words)

I will apply for a research clearance from the Ministry of Education and Vocational Training as soon as I arrive in Tanzania. Processing of application and issuing of such permits to educational researchers is one of the Ministry's functions; and holders do not need any other documentation in order to go into schools. This notwithstanding, I still will observe and respect the right of participants to withdraw or decline to answer any question/s during the interviews, focus group discussions and when administering the questionnaires.

3.2 Written Permission

Please note that written permission is usually required to gain access to research participants within an organisation (e.g. school, Local Authority, Glasgow University class)

Are copies provided with this application?

YES ☐ NO ☒

OR Are they to follow?

YES ☒ NO ☐

3 b I will apply for research clearance from the Ministry of Education soon after my arrival in Tanzania and forward a copy to the Ethics Committee.

YES ☐ NO ☒

(If YES, please provide name and location of the ethics committee and the result of the application.)

3.4 Have you attached your Plain Language Statement(s) (PLS) for participants?

A Plain Language Statement is written information in plain language that you will provide to subjects to explain the project and invite their participation. Contact details for Supervisor and Faculty Ethics Officer MUST be included. Please note that a copy of this information must be given to the participant to keep.)

YES ☒ NO ☐

(If NO, please explain.)

As there are 6 different types of participant, I have prepared 6 versions of the Plain Language Statement.

3.5 How will informed consent be recorded by individual participants or representatives?

14.1.1.1.2.1 Signed consent form ☒ 14.1.1.2 Recorded verbal consent

14.1.1.2.1.1 Implied by return of survey ☒ 14.1.1.3]
14.1.1.4 Other

(Please specify):

For the literate individuals, informed consent will be in written form whereas for illiterate ones, it will be verbal

3.6 Have you attached to your application a copy of the consent form(s)?

The final consent form **MUST** be printed on University of Glasgow letter headed paper.

YES V NO ☐ (If NO, please explain.)

4 Monitoring

Please describe how the supervisor(s) will monitor the project to ensure that the research is being carried out in accordance with the approved ethics protocol (e.g. give details of regular meetings/email contact) (Maximum 50 words).

I will email my supervisors fortnightly to provide feedback on my field experience and seek their advice.

5 Health and Safety

Have you made yourself aware of local provisions for Health and Safety?

Yes. I am quite familiar with the geography and social cultural characteristics of these locations; and hence will get prepared well for any health and safety eventualities.

Are there any other specific Health and Safety issues?
Please give details

Not to my knowledge.

6 UK Government Legislation

6.1 Have you made yourself familiar with the requirements of the Data Protection Act (1998)? (See Application Guidance Notes for further information. In addition visit <http://www.gla.ac.uk/services/information/dpa/> for guidance and advice on the Act)

YES V NO ☐ If NO, please explain.

6.2 Have you made yourself familiar with the requirements of the Freedom of Information (Scotland) Act (2002)? (See Application Guidance Notes for further information. In addition visit <http://www.gla.ac.uk/services/information/foi/> for guidance and advice on the Act)

15
YES V NO ☐ If NO, please explain.

6.3 If your research involves children, have you made yourself familiar with the requirements of the Children (Scotland) Act 1995? (The full Act is available at: http://www.hmso.gov.uk/acts/acts1995/Ukpga_19950036_en_2.htm#md1v1).

16 YES	17 V	18 NO		If NO, please explain
				Not applicable is a suitable answer
Yes and have also familiarised myself with the equivalent Tanzania Law of the Child Act of 2009.				

7 Declarations by Researcher(s)/Supervisor(s)

- The information contained herein is, to the best of my knowledge and belief, accurate.
- I have read the University's current human ethics guidelines, and accept responsibility for the conduct of the procedures set out in the attached application in accordance with the guidelines, the University's Code of Conduct for Research and any other condition laid down by the University of Glasgow Ethics Committee and the Faculty of Education Ethics Committee.
- I have attempted to identify all risks related to the research that may arise in conducting this research and acknowledge my obligations and the rights of the participants.
- I and my co-researcher(s) or supporting staff have the appropriate qualifications, experience and facilities to conduct the research set out in the attached application and to deal effectively with any emergencies and contingencies related to the research that may arise.
- I understand that **no** research work involving human participants or data can commence until **full** ethical approval has been given by the Faculty of Education Ethics Committee.

Please ensure that you submit the *applicant's checklist* with your application.

The Ethics Committee will give no final decision UNLESS both the electronic AND signed paper copies of the application have been received.

	<i>Signature</i>	<i>Date</i>	
18.1.1.1.1.1.1.1 Researcher			
18.1.1.1.1.1.1.2 Principal Supervisor			

The EAP1 education ethics approval form must be completed and submitted electronically and in paper form to:

*Mrs Terri Hume, Ethics Secretary, Faculty Office, Faculty of Education,
University of Glasgow, Room 425b, Level Four, St Andrew's Building, 11 Eldon
Street, Glasgow, G3 6NH. E-mail: T.Hume@admin.gla.ac.uk*

APPENDIX III: Informed Consent Form

The University of Glasgow, charity number SC004401

Title of Project: CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT IN TANZANIA: An Investigation of the Formulation, Management and Implementation of the 2005 Curriculum Reform in Selected Disadvantaged Districts

Name of Researcher: PETER SALUM KOPWEH

1. I confirm that I have read and understood the Plain Language Statement for the above study and have had the opportunity to ask questions.
2. I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time, without giving any reason.
3. I also understand that:
 - a) my consent will be requested for audio-taping during interviews,
 - b) copies of the interview transcripts will be returned to me for verification if I request,
 - c) my name will not be mentioned anywhere in the final report and pseudonyms or ID numbers will be used in any professional publications arising from the research,
 - e) in instances where a dependent relationship is involved, decision to opt out of the study at any stage will have no effect on relationship, grades, assessment, or employment.
4. I agree / do not agree (delete as applicable) to take part in the above study.

_____	_____	_____
18.1.1.2 Name of Participant	Date	Signature

_____	_____	_____
18.1.1.3 Name of Person giving consent	Date	Signature

(if different from participant, eg Parent)

18.1.1.4

_____	_____	_____
18.1.1.5 Researcher	Date	Signature

APPENDIX IV: Interview Questions for School and College Heads

1.0 For how long have you been a school/college head and in how many institutions?

2.0 What is your general view/experience about curriculum changes in Tanzania?

3.0 Do you think school and college heads need to be involved when reforming the curriculum of a country? Why?

4.0 In 2005, the Government changed the school curriculum for primary and secondary schools and TTCs. How were you involved in this process?

4.0 Do you know whether there was representation of school/college heads in the Ministerial committees that spearheaded the 2005 curriculum reform? (Please elaborate).

5.0 How did you receive information that you were supposed to start implementing a new curriculum; and from whom

6.0 Management of the curriculum

6.5 Did you receive funding for implementing the new curriculum? From whom? Frequency (quarterly, biannually etc). Was it sufficient? What was the basis of this allocation? Did you get it on time? How did this situation affect teaching?

6.6 How textual resources were made available to your school/college? At what frequency (quarterly, biannually etc). Were they sufficient? What was the basis of their allocation? Did you get them on time? How did this situation affect classroom teaching?

6.7 What non-textual materials did you receive? From whom? Were they sufficient? How did this situation affect teaching?

6.8 How did you monitor implementation of the new curriculum in your school/college?

7. Communication and feedback

7.1 What ways of communication were used to communicate to and from the Ministry and your school/college regarding the new curriculum?

7.2 How effective were these ways given the physical and social context of your school/college?

8.0 Curriculum model

8.1 What do you think the new curriculum intended to achieve?

8.2 Do you think this was achieved? Please elaborate

8.3 How relevant is the new curriculum to the learners in (a) Tanzania, (b) your locality?

APPENDIX V: Interview Questions for Ministry of Education Officials

- 1.0 For how long did you/have you served in this senior position?
- 2.0 Could you please give the background to the 2005 curriculum reform in Tanzania?
- 3.0 How do you compare any previous reform you have experienced with the 2005 one?
- 4.0 What model of curriculum was aimed at in the 2005 reform process and why?
- 5.0 Do you think the intended purpose was achieved? Please elaborate.
- 6.0 Management of the curriculum reform
 - 6.1 How were funds availed to the districts?
 - 6.2 What was the basis of allocation for each district/school?
 - 6.3 Was human expertise made available to the districts/schools in order to implement the new curriculum? Please elaborate.
 - 6.4 How were books availed to the districts and schools?
 - 6.5 What non-textual materials were made available to the districts and schools and how?
 - 6.6 Did the allocation of resources consider areas that are difficult to reach in terms of communication and terrain? Please elaborate.
 - 6.7 What monitoring strategies were used by the Ministry and how effective were they? Please elaborate?
- 7.0 Communication and feedback
 - 7.1 What ways of communication were used to communicate between the Ministry and districts and schools/colleges during the curriculum process?
 - 7.2 How effective were these ways?
 - 7.3 Did districts and schools send feedback on how they were implementing the new curriculum? If so, how and if not, why?
 - 7.4 Were there any variations in the way the district in different geographical locations were implementing the new curriculum? Please give reason for this.

APPENDIX VI: Interview Questions for Non-state Local Institutions

1.0 For how long has your institution been involved in education in Tanzania?

2.0 Generally, what would you have been your institution's major contribution in educating the children of this country?

3.0 As one of the partners in education in this country, how has your institution been involved in policy changes in education?

4.0 In 2005, a new curriculum for primary and secondary schools and teachers colleges came into force in this country. What would you say was your main role in this process?

5.0 In this curriculum reform, the Ministry of Education established some technical working groups (TWGPs) to oversee the process; and different partners were represented in these committees. In which one was your representative? Why do you think s/he was assigned in this group?

6.0 Do you think the Government of Tanzania recognises the role of your institution in as far as education is concerned?

7.0 Do you think the new curriculum that came into force in 2005 is practical and relevant for a Tanzania child? Please elaborate.

*

APPENDIX VII: Interview Questions for International Institutions

1.0 Could you please elaborate briefly on how your institution has been involved in Tanzania's educational development?

2.0 As one of the partners of development in this country, how are you involved in issues regarding policy changes in education?

3.0 In 2005, there was a curriculum reform for primary and secondary schools and teachers colleges. What would you say was your main role in this process?

4.0 It was noted that in this curriculum reform, the Ministry of Education established some technical working groups (TWGPs) to oversee the process; and that development partners were represented. In which one was your representative? Why do you think s/he was assigned in this particular group?

5.0 Given your position as one of the major financiers of education in Tanzania, what are some of the problems do you encounter?

6.0 As a financier of education, don't you feel that sometimes this role elevates you to a point where you to dictate terms to the Ministry in order to qualify for funding? Please elaborate.

7.0 In the 2005 curriculum reform, the Government was required by donors to disengage from publishing secondary school books and hand over the task to private commercial publishers instead. What are your views on this?

APPENDIX VIII: Focus Group Discussion for School Committees



- 1.0 Do you think curricula should at times be changed? Please elaborate.
- 2.0 What is your general view/experience about changes of curriculum in Tanzania?
- 3.0 Have you experienced any other curriculum change in Tanzania? If so when was it?
- 4.0 When a curriculum is changed do you think parents' views need to be considered? Why?
- 5.0 Do you feel that the curriculum that the students are learning gives them the skills and knowledge they need in their communities? How?
- 6.0 Do you feel that the curriculum that the students are learning now prepares them well for (a) their communities? (b) a globalised Tanzania? Please elaborate.
- 7.0 What is the situation regarding availability of t/l materials in this school? How does this affect teaching and learning?
- 8.0 Do the goals of the new curriculum are being achieve? How?

APPENDIX IX: Focus Group Discussion for Students



- 1.0 Do you think curricula should at times be changed? Please elaborate.
- 2.0 What is your general view/experience about changes of curriculum in Tanzania?
- 3.0 When a curriculum is changed do you think students' views need to be incorporated? Why?
- 4.0 Do you feel that the curriculum you are learning now gives you the skills and knowledge you need in your community? How?
5. Do you feel that the curriculum you are learning now prepares you well for a globalised Tanzania? Please elaborate.
6. What is the situation regarding availability of t/l materials in your school i.e. Textbooks? Supplementary books? Non-textual materials?
7. Do you think the intended goals of the new curriculum are being achieved? Please elaborate.

APPENDIX X: Questionnaires for Classroom Teachers, Teacher Trainers, Education Administrators and School Inspectors.



University of Glasgow | Faculty of Education

Primary school teachers, secondary school teachers and teacher trainers

DEAR PARTICIPANT

Many thanks for agreeing to participate in my research project titled *CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT IN TANZANIA: An Investigation of the Formulation, Management and Implementation of the 2005 Curriculum Reform in Selected Disadvantaged Districts*. This project is part of my Doctor of Philosophy studies at Glasgow University, UK. The questionnaire you are about to complete seeks to find out your views and opinions on the curriculum reform carried out in Tanzania in 2005.

I would like to assure you that you are considered an anonymous participant and that all your answers will be taken to be confidential. There are no *right* or *wrong* answers, and thus kindly give your answers as honestly as you possibly can. If you wish to leave out any statements that sound inappropriate to you, please be free to do so. You are also free to exercise your right to withdraw from this exercise before, during or after the research.

Instructions on how to rate your views

Please indicate your level of disagreement/agreement to each the statements given by ticking [V] ONE space only out of the FOUR given. The meaning of the numbers 1 - 4 is given hereunder:

Number	1	2	3	4
Meaning	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly agree

No.	A. RELEVENCE AND PRACTICABILITY				
	Statements	1	2	3	4
1	Changing the school curriculum in a country is regarded as necessary in order to cope with societal changes.				
2	Classroom teachers can distinguish between an irrelevant curriculum from a relevant one.				
3	Apart from enabling them to function nationally, the curriculum of a country should enable recipients to function in their communities as well.				
4	After working with this curriculum for some years now, my conclusion is that it is relevant to the children of this community.				
5	I also feel that this curriculum is relevant to the children of Tanzania as a nation within a globalised world				
No.	B. MANAGEMENT OF THE CURRICULUM REFORM PROCESS				
	Statements	1	2	3	4
1	Proper management of curriculum reform enables the intended educational goals to be attained.				
2	In my school/college, sufficient funds for implementing the new curriculum were provided.				
3	In my school/college, sufficient training was done prior to implementation of the new curriculum.				
4	My school/college received sufficient funding to procure enough books for the new curriculum.				
5	Funding for the procurement of books was received in my school bank account on time.				
6	My school was able to procure sufficient non-textual materials for the new curriculum.				
No.	C. COMMUNICATION AND FEEDBACK				
	Statements	1	2	3	4

1	In reforming curriculum, communication between the various levels of the education system is crucial.				
2	My school/college has serious problems of communication.				
3	3. My school/college has difficult terrain that makes it difficult to reach from the Ministry.				
4	4. The Ministry/District tried its best to send as much information as possible before commencement of the new curriculum.				
5	5. Apart from the conventional means of communication, mobile phones and emails were used to send and receive information between the Ministry/District and my school.				
6	6. The radio, newspapers, TV and posters were used to publicise the new curriculum.				
No.	D. MONITORING AND FEEDBACK				
	Statements	1	2	3	4
1	Monitoring and providing feedback is an important aspect of a curriculum reform process.				
2	In my school, the head was able to monitor implementation of the curriculum effectively because s/he is well facilitated.				
3	The school inspectors have visited my school between more than 10 times since 2005.				
4	The school gets feedback /reports of these visits				
5	These visits/reports are quite helpful in making improving on the weak areas noted.				
6	I feel that the intended goal for the 2005 curriculum in Tanzania is being achieved.				



University of Glasgow | Faculty of Education

District Education Officers, District Academic Officers and District School Inspectors.

DEAR PARTICIPANT

Many thanks for agreeing to participate in my research project titled *CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT IN TANZANIA: An Investigation of the Formulation, Management and Implementation of the 2005 Curriculum Reform in Selected Disadvantaged Districts*. This project is part of my Doctor of Philosophy studies at Glasgow University, UK. The questionnaire you are about to complete seeks to find out your views and opinions on the curriculum reform carried out in Tanzania in 2005.

I would like to assure you that you are considered an anonymous participant and that all your answers will be taken to be confidential. There are no *right* or *wrong* answers, and thus kindly give your answers as honestly as you possibly can. If you wish to leave out any statements that sound inappropriate to you, please be free to do so. You are also free to exercise your right to withdraw from this exercise before, during or after the research.

Instructions on how to rate your views

Please indicate your level of disagreement/agreement to each the statements given by ticking [V] ONE space only out of the FOUR given. The meaning of the numbers 1 - 4 is given hereunder:

Number	1	2	3	4
Meaning	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly agree

No.	A. ROLE OF DISTRICT EDUCATION OFFICERS AND INSPECTORS				
	Statements	1	2	3	4
i	District education officers and inspectors have an important role to play in the reforming of school curricula in a country.				

ii	During the 2005 curriculum reform process in Tanzania, District Education Officers and Inspectors got opportunity to give their views.				
lii	As far as I am aware, the final curriculum produced did accommodate opinions and views of the District Education Officers and Inspectors				
No	B. MANAGEMENT OF THE CURRICULUM REFORM PROCESS				
.	Statements	1	2	3	4
i	Proper management of curriculum reform enables the intended educational goals of a country to be attained.				
ii	In my district, sufficient funds for implementing the new curriculum were provided.				
iii	3. In my district, sufficient training to district officials, inspectors, ward education co-ordinators and teachers was done prior to implementation of the new curriculum.				
iv	Schools in my district received sufficient funding to procure books for the new curriculum.				
v	Funding for the procurement of books was received in schools on time.				
vi	My district was able to procure sufficient non-textual materials for the new curriculum and avail them to schools.				
No	C. COMMUNICATION				
.	Statements	1	2	3	4
i	In reforming curriculum, communication between the various levels of the education system is crucial.				
ii	My district has serious problems of communication.				
iii	My district has difficult terrain that makes it difficult to reach from the Ministry.				
iv	The Ministry of Education tried its best to send as much information as possible before commencement of the new curriculum.				
v	Apart from the conventional means of communication, mobile phones and emails were used to send and receive information between the Ministry and the District.				
vi	The radio, newspapers, TV and posters were used to publicise the new curriculum.				
No	D. MONITORING AND FEEDBACK				
.	Statements	1	2	3	4
i	Monitoring and providing feedback is an important aspect of a curriculum reform process.				
ii	In my district, the education team and inspectors were able to monitor implementation of the curriculum effectively as they were well-facilitated.				
iii	The district team was able to visit the schools regularly because we have vehicles and motorcycles.				
iv	The Ministry of Education carries out monitoring visits occasionally.				
v	The district education and inspection offices get feedback /reports of these visits				
vi	These visits/reports are quite helpful in making improving on the weak areas noted.				
vii	I feel that the intended goal for the 2005 curriculum in Tanzania is being achieved.				



Questionnaire for District Education Administrators

Dear Participant

Many thanks for agreeing to participate in my research project titled *CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT IN TANZANIA: An Investigation of the Formulation, Management and Implementation of the 2005 Curriculum Reform in Selected Disadvantaged Districts*. This project is part of my Doctor of Philosophy studies at Glasgow University, UK. The questionnaire you are about to complete seeks to find out your views on the 2005 curriculum. I would like to assure you that you are considered an anonymous participant and that your views will be confidential. There are no *right* or *wrong* answers, and thus kindly give your answers as honestly as you possibly can. If you wish to leave out any statements that you feel inappropriate, please be free to do so. You are also free to exercise your right to withdraw from this exercise at any stage.
(Peter S Kopweh)

Instructions on how to rate your views

Please indicate your level of disagreement or agreement to each the statements given by ticking [V] ONE space out of the FOUR given. The meaning of the numbers 1 - 4 is given hereunder:

Number	1	2	3	4
Meaning	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly agree

No.	A. ROLE OF DISTRICT EDUCATION OFFICERS AND INSPECTORS				
	Statements	1	2	3	4
i	I am of the view that when the school curriculum is changed, the opinions of district education staff and inspectors need to be incorporated.				
ii	As far as I am aware, the new curriculum produced in 2005 accommodated views of district education staff and inspectors				

No.	B. MANAGEMENT OF THE CURRICULUM REFORM PROCESS				
	Statements	1	2	3	4
i	Good management and administration at the district level enables attainment of curriculum goals.				
ii	In my district, sufficient funds were provided for implementing the planned activities for the new curriculum.				
iii	District education staff and teachers in my schools were trained in preparation for the new curriculum.				
iv	My district received funding to buy textbooks and teachers' guides for the new curriculum.				
v	Funding for the procurement of books was disbursed to schools' bank accounts on time.				
vi	My district was also provided with funds for procurement of slates, science equipment etc. for the new curriculum.				
vii	Funding for buying books and other materials was received early enough to enable teachers to get prepared for the new curriculum.				

No.	C. COMMUNICATION AND FEEDBACK				
	Statements	1	2	3	4
i	In my view, when a curriculum is changed, communication and feedback between the various levels of the education system is important.				
ii	In my view, when a curriculum is changed, it is important to inform				

	education stakeholders (e.g. teachers, parents,).				
iii	During the 2005 curriculum reform process, the Ministry of Education kept my office informed.				
iv	During the 2005 curriculum reform process, the Ministry informed other education stakeholders.				

In the following statements (v and vi), give brief descriptions

v. Given the location of your district and available facilities, the following means of communication can be used to contact your office:

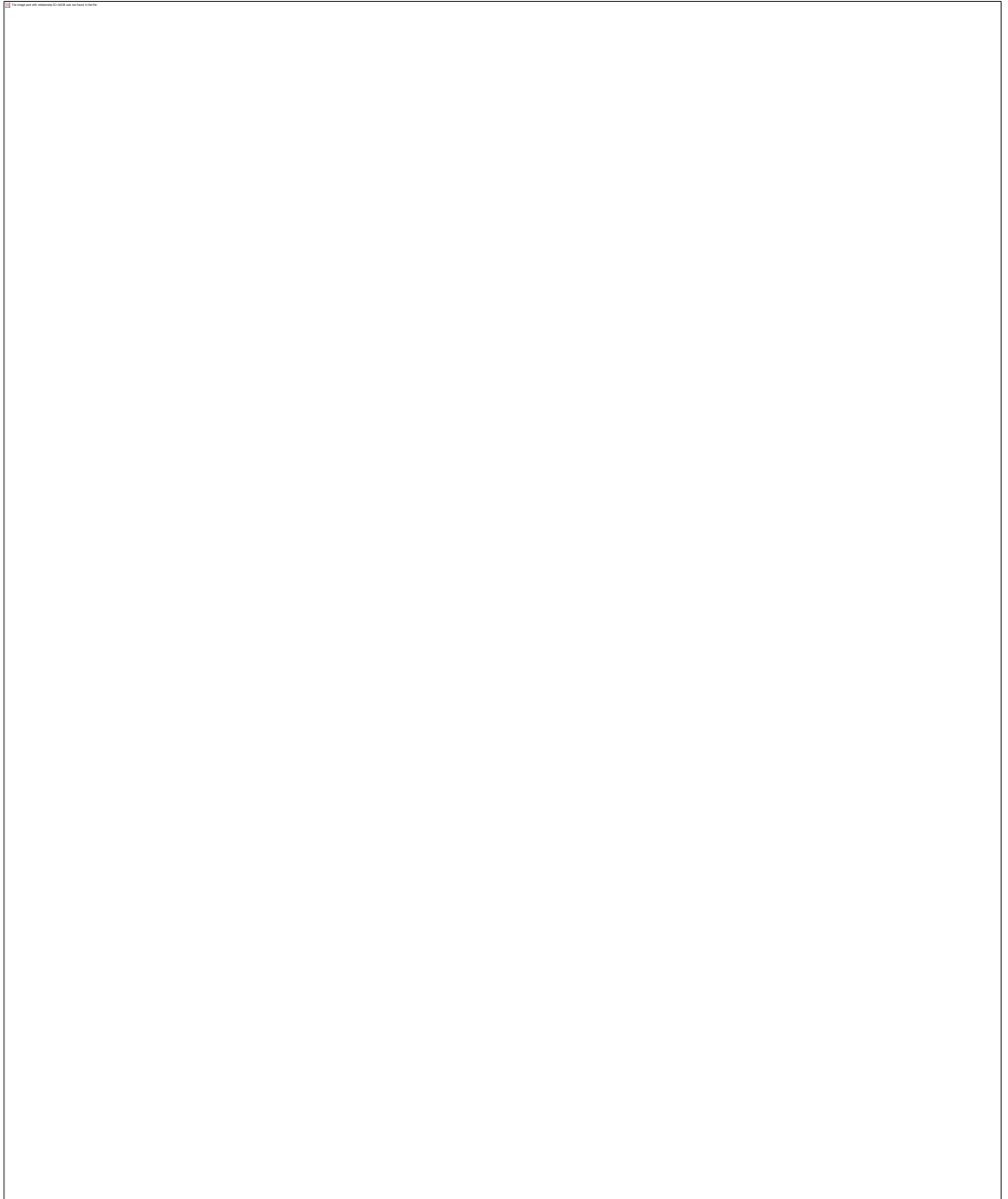
- a), b)
c), d)
e), f)

vi. Out of the above means of communication, which ones were used to communicate with your office regarding the new curriculum?

- a), b)
c), d)

No.	D. MONITORING AND FEEDBACK				
	Statements	1	2	3	4
i	Monitoring and providing feedback is an important aspect of a curriculum reform process.				
ii	In my district, the inspectorate office has facilities to enable them monitor implementation of the curriculum in schools.				
iii	I am happy with the frequency of the monitoring visits to schools carried out by the district inspectorate team.				
iv	During the 2005 reform process, the Ministry of Education carried out some monitoring visits in my district.				
v	The Ministry sent feedback to the districts after monitoring visits.				
vi	I feel that the intended purposes for the 2005 curriculum in Tanzania are being achieved.				

APPENDIX XI: Research Clearance letters



APPENDIX XII: Teacher Training Advertisement

APPLICATION FOR SHORT (SPECIALIZED) TERM TEACHER TRAINING PROGRAMME FOR SECONDARY SCHOOLS,

MARCH - APRIL 2007

The Permanent Secretary of the Ministry of Educational and Vocational Training is pleased to announce **6,000** vacancies for a specialized teacher training (4 weeks) for Form 6 school leavers with two principal passes in subjects taught in secondary schools. Applications can also be received from school leavers with Full Technician Course-FTC), and those with Business Education qualifications. In their applicants, candidates should indicate their gender, and age. The course will be conducted from 12/03/2007 to 07/04/2007. Applications should be sent to the nearest teachers college as follows:

College	Regions	Qty
Morogoro TTC, P O Box 691, Morogoro, e-mail: ngonyaniwa@yahoo.co.uk , Tel. 0754 288766	Dar es Salaam, Morogoro	850
Mpwapwa TTC, P O Box 34, Mpwapwa e-mail: mpwatc@do.ucc.co.tz , Tel. 0784462814	Singida, Dodoma	800
Tabora TTC, P O Box 320, Tabora, e-mail: taboratc@taboraonline.com , Tel. 0754 979109	Tabora, Kigoma	400
Tukuyu TTC, P O Box 554, Tukuyu, e-mail: tukuyutc@alma.co.tz , Tel. 0754 080907	Mbeya, Rukwa	550
Butimba TTC, P O Box. 1411, Mwanza, e-mail: luimsoffe@yahoo.com , Tel 0754 275584	Mwanza, Shinyanga	850
Kleruu TTC, P O Box 549 Iringa, e-mail: Klerruutc@iringanet.co.uk , Tel. 0784 433364	Iringa	300
Monduli TTC, P O Box Monduli, e-mail: dvdmarandu@yahoo.co.uk , Tel. 0754 319504	Arusha, Manyara	550
Bunda TTC, P O Box 1 Bunda, e-mail: bundatc@hotmail.com , Tel. 0282621028	Kagera, Mara	450
Korogwe TTC, P O Box 533, Korogwe, e-mail: kortc@habari.co.tz , Tel. 0784678136	Tanga, Kilimanjaro, Pwan	850
Mtwara TTC, P O Box 506, Mtwara, e-mail: mtwara@tctanzania.com , Tel. 0784383151	Ruvuma, Lindi, Mtwara	400

Note: Application letters should attach true copies of Form 4 and 6 certificates and 2 passport size photographs. Applicants should indicate 2 subjects that the applicant would be ready to teach. Results for selected candidates will be given on 05/03/2007 through regional Education Officers. 4. Upon arrival in colleges, candidates will be required to show original copies of certificates mentioned in 1 above for registration. Applications will only be received from candidates who have completed Form 6 between 1998 and 2006. Candidates are required to pay their own fares to the respective colleges as well as to the districts they will be posted to. The Government will refund them accordingly. Tuition fees, meals and cost for training materials will also be met by the Government, but candidates will also be required to meet their own cost for laundry, hygiene, crockery, and other personal expenses. Successful candidates will be licensed to for a period of 4 years and will then be posted as secondary school teachers. The deadline for receiving applications is 28/02/2007. This advert can also be accessed via the Ministry of Education website: www.moe.go.tz

Hamisi O. Dihenga
Permanent Secretary
Ministry of education and vocational training
PO Box 9121, DAR ES SALAAM

APPENDIX XIII: Poverty Profiling for the Study Districts

	Poverty indicators (as per National Bureau of Statistics)																
	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M	N	O	P	Q
D1	230164	27	6025	0.004	40	25	10.8	73	54	59	67	11.5	9.9	27	1.5	60	2.5
D2	132045	72	5048	0.014	32	24	11.5	83	66	44	66	3.1	2.8	44	5.0	68	6.2
D3	95614	20	4766	0.004	51	28	11.8	71	51	49	52	5.9	3.9	2.2	1.2	59	1.4
D4	203102	15	3673	0.004	34	30	9.4	62	41	47	51	8.4	6.5	1.5	0.8	51	1.4
D5	187428	69	7477	0.009	40	27	10.5	58	38	59	102	7.4	7.1	5.5	0.3	63	0.6
D6	40801	68	3380	0.020	43	23	9.9	77	58	66	60	3.1	2.7	10.0	1.5	71	1.0
D7	44107	25	2928	0.008	22	25	10.8	81	66	63	77	5.2	4.2	28	1.9	50	1.9
D8	419970	103	8051	0.013	16	23	8.8	86	69	63	74	5.7	3.6	45	3.5	48	1.5
D9	261004	83	4910	0.017	31	23	9.5	85	70	50	76	9.7	4.6	53	6.6	50	2.2
D10	249572	31	4604	0.007	32	25	6.8	72	55	64	82	8.6	7.6	39	5.0	45	1.1
D11	144359	26	-	-	38	24	6.9	63	67	76	18.9	17.4	29	29	1.2	41	0.1
D12	243580	409	8088	0.051	17	24	12.2	91	83	51	80	4.5	2.0	77	21.0	70	13.1
D13	118065	44	Data not available as was curved out of B8 in 2007														
D14	279423	66	4419	0.015	33	27	8.4	79	64	63	77	5.2	4.2	28	1.9	50	1.9

Source: Key to entries

A	Total population, 2002
B	Population, 2002, per km2
C	Population per health facility, 2002
D	Number of health facilities per km2
E	Percent of the population below the poverty line, 2000/01
F	Percent of households which are female-headed or headed by person 60 or older, 2002
G	Percent of children under 18 who are orphaned, 2002
H	Percent of males 15+ who are literate, 2002
I	Percent of females 15+ who are literate, 2002
J	Primary education pupil-teacher ratio, 2004
K	Primary education pupil-classroom ratio, 2004
L	Percent of children 7-13yr - economically active, 2002
M	Percent of children 7-13yr, economically active but out of school, 2002
N	Percent of rural h/holds using piped water, 2002
O	Percent of households with flush toilet, 2002
P	Percent of households owning a radio, 2002
Q	Percent of households owning a telephone, 2002
R	Percent of households owning a bicycle, 2002
S	Percent of households having electricity, 2002
T	Percent of h/olds with poor quality housing materials, 2002
U	Infant mortality rate (per 1,000 live births), 2002
V	Under-five mortality rate (per 1,000 live births), 2002

Source: United Republic of Tanzania/REPOA (2005) Poverty and Human Development Report 2005

APPENDIX XIV:A Sample of Minutes of EMAC Meeting, on 27&29th April 2009

2.0 Attendance

1.1 In attendance:

1. Ag. Commissioner of Education, MoEVT - Chairperson
2. Deputy Director, Tanzania Institute of Education
3. Director, Teacher Education, MOEVT
4. Ag. Director for Secondary Education, MOEVT
5. Legal Officer, MoEVT
6. Chief Inspector of School, MOEVT
7. Executive Secretary, Copyright Society of Tanzania
8. Executive Secretary, Book Sellers Association of Tanzania
9. For Director, Policy and Planning, MoEVT
10. Executive Secretary, Publishers Association of Tanzania
11. EMAC Secretariat, MoEVT
12. Dean, School of Education, University of Dar Salaam.
13. Secretary, Tanzania Association of Managers of Non-Government Secondary Schools and Colleges

1.2 Absent with apology

1. Director, Primary Education -MOEVT
2. Representative - Printers Association of Tanzania

2.0 Agenda

- 2.1 Opening remarks
- 2.2 Adoption of the agenda
- 2.3 Confirmation of minutes for EMAC Meeting of 17th&18th November 2008
- 2.4 Matters arising
- 2.5 Decision on evaluated works
- 2.6 AOB

3.0 Proceedings

3.1 Opening: The Chairperson opened the meeting at 13.30 hours and apologised for being late to start the meeting due to other unexpected official duties and meetings. He eventually asked members to introduce themselves.

3.1 The agenda were adopted without any change.

3.2 The minutes of EMAC 17th - 18th November 2008 were confirmed with minor corrections

3.3. There were no matters arising

Code Nos.	Title and Level	Average Points Awarded			Strengths, Weaknesses & Comments
		PQS (70)	PDQS (30)	TOTAL (100%)	
60-61/9	MLT for Form 1-4-Supplementary	56	21	77	<p>Strengths (MLT): The mobile laboratory table is made of non-toxic material and is real environmental and user friendly. MLT is easy to use, handle and store. It is also multipurpose use i.e. it can be used for different topics from science subjects. It is water- resistant and simple to improvise in locality.</p> <p>Weaknesses: The table should be a bit wider than 76cm to allow more working space for students. The wooden pulley in the electricity generating system should be replaced with a battery or a modified efficient gadget for charging the lead acid accumulator. The 2 PVC laboratory sinks/basins should also be replaced with white ceramic sinks /basins in order to enhance durability. The electrical components/ fittings need to be covered for safety and thorough protection.</p> <p>Strengths (TG): The practical manual conforms to the subject matter-physics, chemistry and biology. The practical manual has clear instructions to the teacher. The facts, concepts and figures in the manual are correct and accurate.</p>
		62	22	84	

Code Nos.	Title and Level	Average Points Awarded			Strengths, Weaknesses & Comments
		PQS (70)	PDQS (30)	TOTAL (100%)	
					Weaknesses: Some facts and concepts are vague e.g. pg 117, 125.Editing errors noted in pg 119, 120, 127, 128, 131, 132, 141 & 142 EMAC Decision: Conditional Approval
11/12	Arts and Crafts Std 1 (PPs & TG): Textbook GDY	61 53	23 22	84 75	Pupils Book Strengths 1. Syllabus topics have been well-covered 2. Organisation of the book as well as that of chapters is good. 3. Illustrations are simple and well presented. They also teach morals e.g. pg. 44 - 47- 4. Colour has been used appropriately. 5. The cover, paper weight and binding are good. Weaknesses: 1. The font and typeface should be changed as directed for this level in the EMAC Manual of Procedures Item 3.2.2 on This would reflect the correct size for this class and the right font for numbers 1, 4, 6, and 9; and letters a, g, l, t and q. 2. Exercises should be given and not guidelines as to what the teacher should do. 3. The page numbers are too small to read. 4. A few spelling errors identified should be attended to. Teacher's Guide Strengths 1. The objectives are well stated and measurable. 2. Organisation of the TG relates to the PB. 3. The teaching and learning strategies provide clear guidance to the teacher. 4. The exercises given are good. 5. The cover and paper weight are ok. 6. Cover, printing and binding is good. Weaknesses The preface needs revisiting to correct grammatical errors. EMAC Decision : Rejection
60-61/9	MLT for Form 1-4-Supplementary	56 62	21 22	77 84	Strengths (MLT): The mobile laboratory table is made of non-toxic material and is real environmental and user friendly. MLT is easy to use, handle and store. It is also multipurpose use i.e. it can be used for different topics from science subjects. It is water- resistant and simple to improvise in locality. Weaknesses: The table should be a bit wider than 76cm to allow more working space for students. The wooden pulley in the electricity generating system should be replaced with a battery or a modified efficient gadget for charging the lead acid accumulator. The 2 PVC laboratory sinks/basins should also be replaced with white ceramic sinks /basins in order to enhance durability. The electrical components/ fittings need to be covered for safety and thorough protection. Strengths (TG): The practical manual conforms to the subject matter-physics, chemistry and biology. The practical manual has clear instructions to the teacher. The facts, concepts and figures in the manual are correct and accurate. Weaknesses: Some facts and concepts are vague e.g. pg 117, 125.Editing errors noted in pg 119, 120, 127, 128,

Code Nos.	Title and Level	Average Points Awarded			Strengths, Weaknesses & Comments
		PQS (70)	PDQS (30)	TOTAL (100%)	
					131, 132, 141 & 142 EMAC Decision: Conditional Approval
308-309/8	ICT for Form 1-2 Course Book	69 57	21 24	90 81	Strengths PB: The material matches with the education level of learners and covers the syllabus topics. The organization and presentation of the content is good. Most facts and concepts are correct. The text does not explicitly infringe any of social-cultural values of Tanzania. Variety of relevant illustrations, animations, photos and figures are properly used in the text. The language used is appropriate to the level of learners. The contents adhere to the moral values of Tanzania and also do not violate any religious and political beliefs. Binding and printing is reasonably good. Weaknesses: Early computer developments start and end of a spread sheet program, extra details of negative effects of internet are skipped-should be included as per the syllabus. The book lacks prelims and end matters. Strengths TG: The objectives stated in teachers guide are realistic, measurable and match with those stated in the syllabus. Sequencing of topics /subtopics relates to that of pupil's book. There are ample and good activities that measure almost all levels of understanding. Teaching and learning strategies can enhance teaching and learning process. The guide provides new ideas, extra questions, extra examples and correct answers. The quality of paper, binding, print, type face and size is good. Weaknesses: The teachers guide does not refer to any other specific reading materials. Teachers guide does not provide prelims and end matters. EMAC Decision: Conditional Approval
144/9	Mathematics Revision Questions Form 4 Supplementary	58	28	86	Strengths PB: Most topics and subtopics of the syllabus are covered. The material does not violate socio-cultural values of Tanzania. Most of the concepts and facts in form of questions are correct. The organization and presentation of the content adheres to sound pedagogical approach. The material is also relevant to learner's age, needs and interests. With an exceptions of few topics, there are enough and good revision questions. The language used in the text is simple and can be easily understood by learners. Quality of binding and other physical qualities are reasonably good Weaknesses: There are few revision questions for the following topics vector, pg 68, statistics pg 52,,linear programming pg 32,sets pg 39, accounts pg 55. Cross cutting issues are not emphasized for instance in statistics HIV/AIDS data could be used in asking questions. There are no illustrations to motivate learners. References are not indicated in the text and at the end of the book. EMAC Decision: Conditional Approval
186-187/9	Chemistry Form 1&2 Course Book Oup	68 68	25 25	93 93	Strengths PB: The content conforms well to the syllabus and its organization is as per the pedagogical approach. The information contained in the book is correct and accurate.It also conforms well with the social-cultural values of the country The content helps learners to build positive life skills and it is relevant to the learners

Code Nos.	Title and Level	Average Points Awarded			Strengths, Weaknesses & Comments
		PQS (70)	PDQS (30)	TOTAL (100%)	
					<p>age needs and interests. There are enough, correct and good illustrations for better understanding of concepts. The assessment activities and practices are adequate in testing different levels of understanding. The cover is attractive and water resistant.</p> <p>Binding, print, type face and size are of reasonable quality.</p> <p>Weaknesses: There are no materials that can inform learners on cross cutting issues like HIV/AIDS and etc. The arrangement of subtopics in chapter 2 should be reorganized by starting with introduction, laboratory rules and safety measures, chemical warning signs first aid first aid procedures and end with chemistry apparatus</p> <p>Strengths TG: The objectives are realistic, measurable and match with those stated in the syllabus.</p> <p>Topics and subtopics are well organized and presented as per the student book. Activities provided in teacher's guide measure different levels of cognition. Teaching and learning strategies can enhance teaching and learning process. TG provides correct answers to the questions. The physical design is of reasonable quality.</p> <p>Weaknesses: Teacher's guide doesn't show any reference that could help the teacher to consult other reading materials.</p> <p>EMAC Decision: Conditional Approval</p>
188-189/9	Chemistry Form 3&4 Course Book Oup	64 66	23 24	87 90	<p>Strengths PB: The topics and subtopics conform to the syllabus and its depth and breadth of the concepts is appropriate to the level of learners. General and specific objectives are realized in the text. The arrangement of materials is good i.e. it abides to the pedagogical needs of learners. The organization and presentation of materials is as per the sound pedagogical approach i.e. they are arranged and presented by starting with simple and ending with complex concepts. The material helps learners to build positive life skills. The material does not violate socio-cultural values of the country. The material inform learners about global technology and can be applied in learner's local settings. The content in the text is appropriate and relevant to both teachers and learners. The illustrations are of high quality. The language used for communication purpose is simple and can be clearly understood by learners. Physical and design of the book is of good quality</p> <p>Weaknesses: The information on HIV/AIDS, gender and other cross cutting issues are not well addressed. In pg 121 fig 6.14 the arrow is missing and pg 247 the information is not clear. Between pg 233 and 234 there is irrelevant information/document attached. Spelling mistakes on pg 245.</p> <p>Strengths TG: The objectives match with those stated in the syllabus and are clear. The sequencing of topics and subtopics is as per the student's book. Most levels of understanding are emphasized in the text. Teachers guide provides correct answers to the students' book questions.</p> <p>Extra questions and examples are given. Physical quality standards of the book are ok.</p>

Code Nos.	Title and Level	Average Points Awarded			Strengths, Weaknesses & Comments
		PQS (70)	PDQS (30)	TOTAL (100%)	
					Weaknesses: Limited number of reference books is given for further reading. Spelling mistakes on the following pgs 5,11,and 37 EMAC Decision: Conditional Approval
184-185/9	Biology Form 1&2 Course Book OUP	57 53	21 24	78 77	<p>Strengths PB: The topics and subtopics of the chemistry syllabus are adequately covered and the depth and breadth of the concepts is appropriate to the level of learners. The organization and presentation of the concepts and facts is good. Variety of good presentation techniques and illustrations are used in the text. Concepts and facts are correct and accurate. There is adequate conformity to the socio-cultural beliefs and values of Tanzania. Life skills and crosscutting issues have been adequately addressed in the book. The content can be applied by learners in their locality and informs learners about global technology and national issues. The material is relevant and appropriate to learners' needs, age and interests as well as to teachers. Good quality illustrations have been properly used in the text. Different techniques have been applied in the presentation of the contents. Variety of activities and exercises are provided to address different competencies. The language used and communication level are appropriate to the level of learners.</p> <p>Weaknesses: There is inconsistency in writing chapter names-they should be written in title case in students' book. Pictures on pg 63 fig. 7.3 need to be modified if meant to depict students-they seem to be old ladies. Experiments on pg 206 and 207 need to be demonstrated by teachers since the procedures are not very clear. The list of key terms on pg 115 should also include Anorexia nervosa and Bulimia nervosa, marasmus, kwashiorkor and rickets. On pg 131 the list should include chyme succus entericus, gastric juice, diastema, heartburn and flatulence. On pg 202 the key terms to be added are plasmodium, transpiration pull, and root pressure. The chapters on classification (10-12) are too detailed for the intended level of learners. The component of food test in chapter 16 should be shifted to chapter 14 to bring logical order. The components of food processing preservation and storage should be discussed adequately and focusing on both traditional and modern methods of food processing, preservation and storage. The picture of a person attending an incinerator on pg 47 fig. should wear nose and mouth mask to avoid bad smell and maintain health. Work on spelling mistakes on pg 227 question 2 iv. Is it digestive track or tract?.</p> <p>Strengths TG: The objectives match well with those stated in the syllabus. The sequencing of topics and subtopics in relation to students' book is good. Different levels of understanding have been adequately addressed. The T/L strategies are appropriate</p> <p>Weaknesses: There is inconsistency in writing chapter names-they should be written in title case in teachers guide. The objectives should be addressed to individual students for example in chapters 2,5,6, 7, 8,9, etc, and also the skills to be acquired should be</p>

Code Nos.	Title and Level	Average Points Awarded			Strengths, Weaknesses & Comments
		PQS (70)	PDQS (30)	TOTAL (100%)	
					well reflected in the teaching and learning strategies. Extra questions are lacking some of the chapters eg 5,6,8,10, and 20 References are too few -given a wide coverage of the book for form 1&2. Some answers provided in teachers guide need to be revisited eg pgs 4, 5, 10, 17, 18, 25, 57 etc. EMAC Decision: Conditional Approval
14/9	Mathematics Form 1 Course Book Ed bks	51	27	78	Strengths PB: The work covers topics and subtopics from the syllabus and the arrangement of materials is appropriate to the needs of learners. The content conforms to the general and specific objectives of education. The organization and presentation of content is as per the pedagogical approach. The content does not violate any social-cultural values of Tanzania. Most of the information is correct. The content builds positive life skill to learners. Weaknesses: Pages 56-70 should be reset, it is upside down. The syllabus restricts numbers up to 1 billion pg 4,6. The content does not inform learners upon cross-cutting issues like HIV/AIDS etc.Editorial errors and other problems are observed on pgs1,2,3,4,6,9,10,11,13,15,15, 17, 18, 22, 24, 27, 28, etc Strengths TG: The objectives given in teachers guide is a copy of the syllabus. They are realistic and measurable. The sequencing of topics and subtopics in teachers guide relates to the student book. Weaknesses: Teaching and learning strategies do not show how T/L resources should be used in teaching and learning process.TG does not provide extra questions, new ideas and extra examples. Some answers are not correct in teachers guide. EMAC Decision: Conditional Approval
		49	25	74	
13/9	Mathematics Form 2 Course Book Ed bks	55	25	80	Strengths PB: The content conforms to the syllabus and general and specific objectives of education. The level of difficult is appropriate to the learners. The content organization and presentation abides to the pedagogical approach -have been arranged from simple to complex. Facts / concepts are correct and figures are appropriate and accurate. Life skills and socio-cultural values are emphasized in student books. The knowledge given in the material can be applied in their locality and informs learners upon global issues The book has good and enough exercises to measure varies level of understanding. A language and communicaton aspect is ok. Physical and design quality standards are good. Weaknesses: Some discussions are missing for example "how to obtain rationalizing factor pg 15, combined transformations pg 155, logarithmic tables and trigonometric tables should be included in the student's book especially at the end of the book. Some mistakes are noted on the following pgs vii, viii, 1,4,5,8, 12, 15, etc. Cross - cutting issues are not emphasized in the manuscript. Strengths TG: The objectives stated in teacher's guide match with those stated in the syllabus. The objectives are also clear, realistic and measurable. The sequencing of topics and subtopics in teachers guide doesn't differ from student's book. It is good in terms of physical and
		48	28	76	

Code Nos.	Title and Level	Average Points Awarded			Strengths, Weaknesses & Comments
		PQS (70)	PDQS (30)	TOTAL (100%)	
					design quality standards. Weaknesses: Teaching and learning strategies are just a copy from the syllabus and are not helpful to the teacher during instruction. Teachers guide does not provide new ideas, extra questions and examples. Teaching and learning strategies do not show clearly how the teacher should use teaching and learning resources. EMAC Decision: Conditional Approval
138/9	Mathematics Form 3 Course Book Ed bks	50 50	25 28	75 78	Strengths PB: All topics and subtopics of the syllabus are emphasized in the book. The content are well treated in terms of depth and breadth. The content conforms to the general and specific objectives of education. The arrangement, organization and presentation of materials is from simple followed by complex ones. With an exception of few mistakes most facts and concepts are correct. The content shows tolerance to different religious and political beliefs, and abides to the moral values of Tanzania. The materials are appropriate and relevant to both learners and teachers and also can be applied by learners in their locality. The illustrations used are reasonably good in terms of its correctness, clarity, balance, location, meaningfulness and relevance. The level of difficult of the language reflects the level of learners .There is no problem with grammar and exactness of the concepts. Weaknesses: Some materials are above the level of learners e.g. page 50 parabolas, page 73 probability and some are missing for the particular level for example pg 41 many to one functions pg 70 graph of inverse by reflection on $y=x$, interpretation of mean, median, mode etc. there is incorrect facts and concepts on pg 49 $-f(x)=25$ as a quadratic function, pg 59 graph of a cubic polynomial, and other incorrect information on pg 61,pg 81.The materials do not inform learners on cross-cutting issues. Strengths TG: The objectives stated in teachers guide match with those stated in the syllabus. Sequencing of the topics subtopics in teachers guide relates directly to the students book. The activities measure most levels of understanding-knowledge, comprehension, application, analysis, synthesis, and evaluation. Weaknesses: Teaching and learning strategies given in teachers guide is just a copy of the syllabus ,so it makes no difference to have a guide or a syllabus. There is no relationship between resources and strategies ie strategies do not show how resources are going to be used in classroom instruction. No extra questions and answers, no new ideas given in the teachers guide. EMAC Decision: Conditional Approval
139/9	Mathematics Form 4 Course Book Ed bks	49 53	22 23	71 76	Strengths PB: The content conforms to the syllabus and organization and presentation of content abides to sound pedagogical approach. Most information in the text is correct and conforms to socio-cultural values of Tanzania. The materials help learners to build positive life skills such as self confidence, assertiveness and self awareness. The materials inform learners upon global issues, current local/national issues and can be applied by learners in their environment. Meaningful, relevant,

Code Nos.	Title and Level	Average Points Awarded			Strengths, Weaknesses & Comments
		PQS (70)	PDQS (30)	TOTAL (100%)	
					<p>clear, and correct and variety of illustrations are properly used in the text. The text provides enough assessment activities which test most levels of cognition. The language used is simple for the level of learners. Physical and design quality standards are reasonably good.</p> <p>Weaknesses: Incorrect information on pg 122, 223,224,225,227,233,235. Figures are not accurately drawn pg 1, 3, 248, 254, 255, 257. The materials do not inform learners on the cross-cutting issues such as HIV/AIDS, Road Safety, Environmental Issues etc.- Word problems could include information on cross-cutting issues. Unnecessary repeating of statements/questions are observed on page 3, 47,48,106.The text lacks mathematical tables (logarithmic and trigonometric tables) which could be placed on last pages of the book</p> <p>Strengths TG: The objectives in teachers guide exactly match with those stated in the mathematics syllabus 2005.Topics and subtopics in teachers guide match with those written in students' book.</p> <p>Weaknesses: Teaching and learning strategies of which the author calls them lessons development stages are directly copied from the syllabus without elaboration to the teacher. They do not show how the teacher should use teaching and learning resources mentioned in classroom instruction. TG provides no new ideas, no extra questions and answers. Some answers are not correct, need to be revisited.</p> <p>EMAC Decision: Conditional Approval</p>

APPENDIX XV: Syllabus format adopted for all TC2005 subjects

English for Form 4 (S4 students) Topic 1.0, Sub-topic 1.1						
Expressing oneself	Expressing one's feelings, ideas, opinions, views and emotions	Student should be able to express personal ideas, feelings, opinions, views and emotions on a variety of issues in different contexts	The teacher to guide students to select topics for discussion from different issues e.g. road accidents, gender, HIV/AIDS, the environment	Texts on a variety of issues	Is the student able to express personal ideas, feelings, opinions, views and emotions on a variety of issues in different contexts	16

Kiswahili for Standard 3 (P3 Students) Topic 3.0 Sub-topic 3.1.						
Quality of things	Describing size and quantity	The student should be able to distinguish the quality of objects by their size and quantity	The teacher to guide the students to identify the size of objects by using simple sentences e.g. the big cups are broken	Real objects e.g. bottles, seeds, books, flowers,	Is the student able to distinguish the quality of objects by their size and quantity?	30

History for Form 2 (S2) Topic 3.0 Sub-topic 3.3						
Africa and the external world	Slavery in the Indian Ocean Seaboard and the Trans-Atlantic Slave Trade	The student should be able to explain the expansion of the slave trade in the Indian Ocean Seaboard from the 18 th Century	The teacher to guide students to sources of information on the reasons for the Oman Arabs need to dominate EA in the C18 th , and why Zanzibar became their capital city	Written sources on the West and E.A. Slave trade. Sketchy maps showing slave routes	Are the students able to explain the expansion of the slave trade in the Indian Ocean Seaboard from the C18 th ?	6

Foundations of Education for Diploma Teacher Trainees Topic 2.0 Sub-topic 2.1.						
Philosophy of Education	2.1 Concept of Philosophy of Education	The student should be able to describe Philosophy of Education, analyse branches of philosophy, and apply philosophical ideas in education.	Discuss 'philosophy of education', follow lectures on metaphysics, epistemology, axiology and logic; and characteristics of branches of philosophy and their relevance to education	Encyclopedia, poster depicting various philosophical ideas and relevant textual materials	Tests, quizzes and terminal examinations. Anecdotal records for group interaction, rating scale for co-operative school learning skills.	5

APPENDIX XVI: Researcher's Fieldwork Diary Extracts

Date	Field notes
<i>All dates deleted for anonymity purposes</i>	<i>District Education Officer: Angelus Cassim. I called Mr Cassim as soon as I arrived in the main city; it was around 02.00pm. He directed to the bus to Pangani and that he had made arrangement for accommodation at New Safari Hotel in the township; and that if I wasn't satisfied with it, he could take me to a RC hostel. It took about 1.1/2 hrs to the township and I called him after settling in the hotel. He came in for a chat in the evening. Cassim, then DEO of Mahenge District replaced a lady (Rehema Mazimbu in 2009 who was in poor relationship with the District Councilors because of her bad character and misuse of education funds. I was told that one evening she got drunk in a bar and then started dancing like a loose woman. There were some fellow district officials around and they just couldn't tolerate such behaviour and decided to leave. The DEO told me that he was summoned by a senior officer at MoEVT and told to switch working stations with the lady in order to save the face of the Govt. The promise was that in 2 years time, he'd be transferred to a district of his choice; (which I came to learn was Iringa R) where he comes from in order to prepare for his retirement in 2014. He requested me to help him; especially to talk with the current Ag. Primary Education Department at the Ministry i.e. remind him of the promise. I advised him to go and see the PS in person. The DEO offered transport to the researcher to help him visit the various schools. Cassim's office was situated adjacent to the town primary school in a quiet suburb.</i>
	<i>B2 District Inspectors Office: Situated in another quiet suburb, the DI office was a new structure constructed by MoEVT in collaboration with the district council. There were enough furniture for all the staff and when I arrived, 1 female and 2 male inspectors were working in the office. The District Chief Inspector's post was unoccupied because the holder was pursuing further studies at the university. The Ag. CI was also away for his OU exams. The 3 inspectors were very cooperative and requested that I leave my questionnaires with them and pick them the next day. They told me of transportation problems as they did not have a vehicle to ferry them around for inspection trips. They have been using the DEO's vehicle sometimes.</i>
	<i>B2Ss1 Secondary School: It is school established 16 years ago and has 2 campuses. The old campus was an old crop storage facility turned into several classrooms by partitioning it. Lower forms were still using this structure. The new structure (about 300m away) was a cement bloc with several classrooms, a staff room and the headmaster's office. Teachers have to move between the 2 campuses. The headmaster was away in town when I arrived and I had started interviewing his deputy (a young lady) when he arrived. I had to switch over to him. He's a BA holder and has headed 3-4 schools. During the discussion he proved quite wide experience in teaching and school management. Many of the staff members seem to be of young blood with diploma qualifications and a few with degrees. Around 7 staff members were away pursuing degree studies in universities. The school has no fence and members of the community were seen passing through the school campus as classes continued. Getting pupils to interview was easy after making arrangements with the deputy head; however, some teachers appeared reluctant to fill the questionnaires. They claimed that they were new to the school and so didn't have the required information.</i>
	<i>B2Ps2 Primary School (1KG, P1-7): The head teacher (James) is a young man about 27 years old and has been here for more than 7 years. He looked industrious and managing the school very well. He even had a car; something that was rather strange compared to his fellows in other districts. I asked him what other business he had that made him financially able. "Farming" he said. The school seems to have sufficient classrooms and 3 new staff houses can be seen in their final stages. One of the pupils' toilets is not used as it broke down. A student was almost killed in this incident. The teacher said that he was waiting for capitation grant or support from the district council. B2Ps2 Primary School is just about 50m.</i>

	<p>from the Indian Ocean and I was able to hear waves crushing on the sea shore during the interview. There was a KG class as well a class for kids with special needs manned by a trained SEN support lady teacher in. I took a few pictures showing pupils crammed in a classroom and a few of them in hijabs; i.e. proof of Islamic impact in this district. Coconut palm, cashew nut trees and other type of trees serve as shade creators for the kids during breaks. The head teacher's interview was conducted in his office whereas the students interview - under the trees.</p>
	<p>B1PS1 Primary School: A rural school in B1 District, on a gravel main road to the border with a nearby country. The road is being upgraded from gravel to bitumen and the dusty roofs in the village building and the school are a sign of the heavy work by a Chinese Company. Part of the school area (including the sports field) has been taken by the project and pupils complained to me. A promise by the government to procure another piece of land for a new field was yet to be fulfilled. The local elder owning the said piece of land was ready to vacate the place as soon as he's paid. The Chinese construction company has promised to do construct the new field once the land is availed. T The student were quite bitter about this and requested the researcher to help. The school tape water has also been destroyed in the road construction project, forcing pupils to cross the road to collect water from the village tape. The head teacher (Thecla) replaced a colleague (also a lady) who passed away a few years back. She is also married to the widower of this lady. She is heading a team of teachers mostly ladies; many of them older than her. She seems to manage well. During the interview she complained bitterly about lack of facilities for the new curriculum and suggested that the new curriculum could have been delayed for at least 3 years. On whether the curriculum was good, she answered in the negative. On communication, she said she can't text the DEO because it was disrespectful. Pupils were very open with me and they all seemed to have ambitions to go into professionalism. Whether this will be possible remains a mystery given the state of affairs described by the head teacher.</p>
	<p>B1Ps2 Primary School: Another rural school in B1 District and about 10 miles from the main road. I passed through bushes and unattended coconut palm farms on the way. About a mile from the school, there was a village made of mud/wooden houses with grass roofs. Fishnets could be seen drying outside many of these houses, hopefully waiting for other fishing trips next day. The Indian Ocean was just 50m. away. The school derives its name from the village. A project to provide power to the villages in this area was underway and there were a couple of pylons already erected on the way from the main road. I arrived at the school in the afternoon as the pupils were breaking for lunch. I therefore had ample time to get pupils for my focus group as well as teachers for the questionnaires. The head teacher (Inno) arranged this for me. The environment looked dry and there was hardly any signs of farming activities all around. There was one big tree where pupils were shading from the cruel tropical sun. A few others were playing football on the school sports field nearby. There were also 4-5m trees bordering the field and this was where I interviewed the pupils. The shade was not that much good though. As I was leaving, I advised the head teacher to plant more of these trees during the rainy season. They'd serve dual purpose - fuel wood (which was in great scarcity) and shading for the pupils. I hope he'll head my advice. The pupils complained a lot regarding the use of the cane and some other military-like punishments in this school. Two teachers were singled out; and I came to learn that they were a couple. It seemed the head teacher was aware of this practice, though when I was interviewing him, he said that regulations were followed properly in administering the cane. The head teacher also disclosed to me how some teachers older than him mounted a 'war' against him when he assumed the office in 2001. They even spread rumour in the village that because he was a Christian, he has introduced extra tuition classes for P7 pupils to prevent them from attending Islamic classes. The district inspectors intervened and cooled the situation.</p>
	<p>A1Ps1 Primary School: A new school (P1-6) born from an old school nearby;</p>

	<p>thanks to former education minister's initiative to break big schools into smaller ones to reduce administration problems. The head teacher (a lady) was very cooperative and managed to organize a group of parents for the focus group session. I managed to meet an old man who had come to follow up his grand-daughter's progress after learning that she was a truant. He told me that the boys parents (his son and his wife) died of AIDS and left the boy and he had to take custody of him. He said that he was not well schooled but understood the value of being highly educated. The pupils</p>
	<p>A1 is located about 60km from the main commercial city where I was stationed. I used my personal car because in my study, no funds were allocated for fieldwork. I arrived at the DEO's office (an old Arab structure) and was told that he was away for his Open University examination. His deputy looked at my research permission letter from MoEVT and informed me that they were not addressed to her office; rather to the District Executive Director. She therefore advised me to take it there; a distance of about 2 miles away. I arrived at the said office and was informed that the DED was away on some celebrations and I was directed to his secretary. The secretary's office was locked and I was told that she had a day off as her child was sick. I took up the matter with the District School Inspector who decided to take me to the schools I had picked because the law allowed her to do this. A1Ss1 Secondary School: I arrived at this school located about 20km from the township town. It's a rural ward school using buildings that were formerly of a (colonial) middle school; the buildings were still going strong, though. The school headmaster was away for official business and I was made to do with the deputy. An intelligent young man this deputy, but reluctant to be interviewed. "I'm not the headmaster" he kept on repeating. Finally, he agreed to do a questionnaire. The school is a co-ed. school and many of the girls are boarders and are provided with meals while all the boys are day students. We met some of them cycling back home as we drove away from the village in the evening. The boys go hungry, unfortunately. The students' focus group was made up of three boys and a girl and they were all good and confident speakers. When I asked them to pick between English and Kiswahili languages for the interview, they went for Kiswahili. "Because you'll get nothing from us, if we do it in English." One of them told me amid his colleagues' laughter. They were very bitter of the name 'Ward' secondary school claiming that it was degrading. They argued that if the government discriminates between what are called 'ward' schools and the others, then there should be 'ward' national examination for them. I thought that was a unique finding in my study. As I was leaving they requested me to go and tell the education minister (Dr Kawambwa who was also the MP for this area) to honour his promise of buying them steel goal posts for their football field. He had promised them during the general election campaigns. Four teachers were picked by the deputy head master to do the questionnaires; and I noted an air of reluctance on two of them. I had to stay there waiting for them to fill them. I thanked them and left with my filled questionnaires.</p>
	<p>A1Ps2 Primary School: Located just a stone throw from A1Ss1 Secondary School This school has new buildings including one teacher's house. Originally, it was located at the A1Ss1 campus. There is a broken water tape and an unroofed classroom, at times used by lower class pupils. Not possible in rainy days though. Six teachers were ready to participate in the questionnaires and a mixed group of pupils in the focus group interview. Lots of interesting information came from both. I was informed by the head teacher that the single house meant for him was used by 3 other teachers because of the serious shortages of accommodation in the village. Fortunately (or may be unfortunately) his family members were living in another village where he had established himself as his new 'home'.</p>
	<p>A2Ss1Secondary School This school is named after one of the ex-presidents of the Tanzania United Republic. It is comparatively a big school compared to the newly-established ward level schools. An un-manned wooden gate was half open and I had to navigate my car in carefully. The physical environment was made up of well-looked school buildings with many trees providing shelter</p>

	<p>for the teachers and students. The headmaster's house was un-occupied because it had developed a serious crack on its foundation. It looked a structure with poor workmanship. The headmaster talked of plans to rehabilitate it. The headmaster was a long-serving teacher with more than 10 years headship experience. He was able to arrange students for the focus group discussion and teachers for the questionnaires. He also agreed to be interviewed and gave me quite useful information. He seemed to know a lot about education problems in coastal areas of Tanzania having headed a few other schools in this area. He narrated how he was able to change the school from one of the poorly performing schools in Tanzania to one that has been moving up the performance ladder gradually. One of the reasons was that he has been informing the parents and seeking their support in almost everything.</p>
	<p>A2Tc1 Teachers' College I arrived at the TTC at around 12.00 and found the principal reprimanding a trainee who has just arrived from home after a suspension due to misbehavior. The Principal was of the view the trainee didn't go home (to his parents in the Lake Zone) because she had sent him a letter informing him that he should not come back until he hears from the college regarding his case. The principal was sitting on a chair while the student was standing attentively looking and perhaps listening carefully. The fact that he has come was proof that he was not at home. He certainly knew in his heart who was obviously wrong, he or the principal. I was offered a chair to sit on for a while as the principal finished business with the student. The student (with his pieces of luggage lying on the floor) never uttered a word during the conversation that spanned about 20 minutes. So the principal was talking alone. At times the principal addressed me with some rhetorical questions; seeking support for what she was saying about the student. I never said anything in reply. I was not sure whether she thought I was rude to her or what. When we went into her office for the interview, she narrated the whole story to me.</p>

APPENDIX XVII: List of documents analysed and their sources

	Documents	Source
1	Various education circulars dating 2003 to 2010	Ministry of Education
2	Government Policy for the provision of teaching materials for schools and colleges, 1998	Ministry of Education
3	Minutes of the Education Materials Evaluation Committee 2003-2010	Ministry of Education
4	Minutes of Basic Education Development Committee 2003-2010.	Ministry of Education
5	Parliamentary (Education) Act No 25 (1978) and its amendments	Ministry of Education
6	Parliamentary Act No. 13 (1975) i.e. establishing of the Tanzania Institute of Education	Ministry of Education
7	Government Guidelines for the procurement of school materials, 2002	Ministry of Education
8	Information Communication Technology Policy, 2007	Ministry of Education
9	Manual on the code of ethics and conduct for the public service, 2006	Ministry of Education
10	Various seminar presentation papers by Tanzania Institute staff	Tanzania Institute of Education
11	Memorandum of Agreement for publishing of TIE-authored secondary school textbooks by private publishers 2004.	Tanzania institute of Education
12	Subject syllabuses for primary schools, 2005	Tanzania Institute of Education
13	Subject syllabuses for secondary schools, 2005	Tanzania Institute of Education
14	Subject syllabuses for teacher training colleges, 2005	Tanzania Institute of Education
15	Official communication regarding TC2005 between Ministry, schools and districts	Ministry, district education offices and schools
16	Minutes of the Quality (Technical) Working Groups during TC2005 process 2003-2005	Ministry of Education
17	Minutes of the Ministry of Education Management meeting	Ministry of Education
18	Education Annual Review Reports, 2005-2010	Ministry of Education
19	Public Expenditure Tracking Survey Reports 2004-2010	Ministry of Education
20	Ministry of Education Monitoring Reports 2005-2010.	Ministry of Education
21	Secondary Education Development Plan I & II	Ministry of Education
22	Primary Education Development Plan I & II	Ministry of Education

**APPENDIX XVIII: Tanzania's macro and micro policies within which the
education sector operates**

Basic Education Master Plan

CCM Manifesto*

Education and Training Policy

Child Development Policy

Civil Service Reform Programme

Information Communication Technology Policy

Education for All (EFA) goals

Education and Training Policy

Education Sector Development Programme

Financial Management Reform Programme

Higher Education Policy

Local Government Reform Programme

National Science and Technology Policy

National Environmental Policy

Primary Education Development Plan

Secondary Education Development Plan

Private Sector Reform Policy

Secondary Education Development Plan

Tanzania Development Vision 2025

Teacher Education Development Plan

Technical Education Policy

Women Development Policy

Integrated Community Based Adult Education Programme

Complementary Basic Education Programme

National Social Welfare Policy

National Women Development and Gender Policy

**CCM is the ruling political party in Tanzania.*

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